

# The Historical Outlook

*Continuing*

THE HISTORY TEACHER'S MAGAZINE

VOLUME XX  
JANUARY—DECEMBER, 1929

PHILADELPHIA  
McKINLEY PUBLISHING COMPANY  
1929



# The Historical Outlook

A JOURNAL FOR

READERS AND TEACHERS OF HISTORY AND THE SOCIAL STUDIES

*Continuing The History Teacher's Magazine*

EDITED IN CO-OPERATION WITH A

COMMITTEE OF THE NATIONAL COUNCIL FOR THE SOCIAL STUDIES

ALBERT E. MCKINLEY, MANAGING EDITOR

Published with the Endorsement of the American Historical Association

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Volume XX  
Number 1.

PHILADELPHIA, JANUARY, 1929

\$2.00 a year.  
30 cents a copy.

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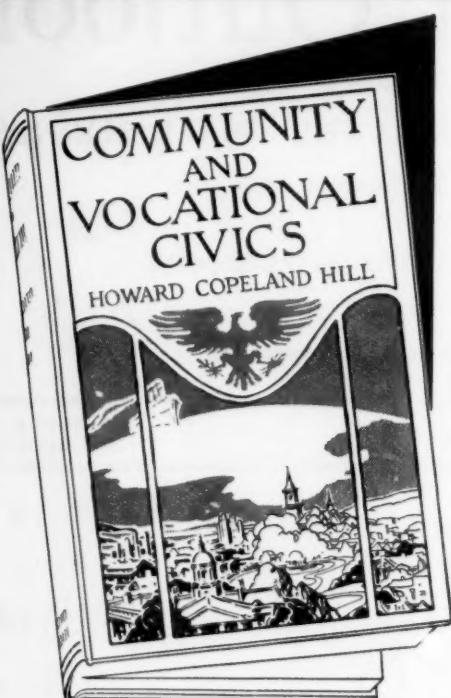
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*Published monthly, except June, July, August and September, by McKinley Publishing Co., 1623 Ranstead St., Philadelphia, Pa.*  
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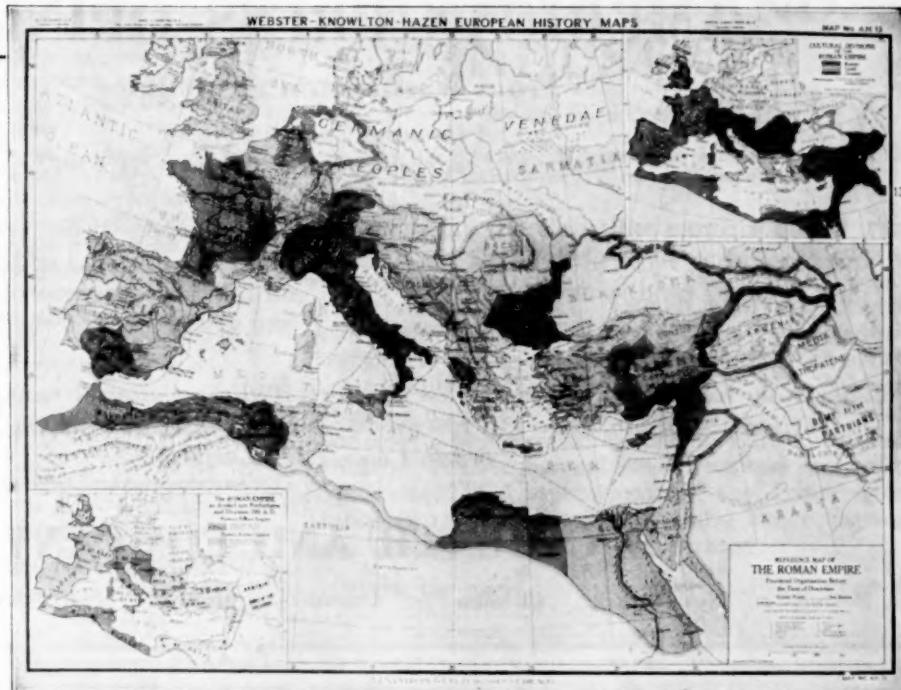
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# The Historical Outlook

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## The Use of Tests in the Teaching of the Social Studies

BY HOWARD C. HILL, PH.D., ASSISTANT PROFESSOR OF THE TEACHING OF THE SOCIAL STUDIES, SCHOOL OF EDUCATION, UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO

### THE PURPOSES OF TESTING

Of what use are tests in the teaching of the social studies? From the point of view set forth in this article four values may be mentioned: First, tests of the proper sort acquaint the teacher with the needs and the capacities of his pupils; second, tests aid the teacher in selecting materials for study and in planning study activities; third, tests inform the teacher whether the learning outcomes sought in a course have been realized; fourth, tests help the teacher to diagnose pupil difficulties and to formulate remedial measures for the overcoming of intellectual obstacles. An adequate testing program is, therefore, an essential factor in efficient teaching.

The conclusion just stated is an inevitable corollary arising from the very nature of education. Education, as Professor H. C. Morrison has well said, is an inner change, a transformation, an adaptation resulting from experience, direct or indirect. When no change takes place, no education occurs. From first to last the teacher's purpose is to bring about certain preconceived and predetermined changes.

Fundamentally considered, then, the purpose of testing is the ascertainment of the presence, or absence, within the pupil of the change or changes which the experience in question was intended to induce. If the results of the test are negative, the evidence indicates either that the test is defective or that the teaching objectives have not been attained. If the former is the situation, the test must be revised so as to remove its faulty features; if the latter is true, the difficulties of the pupil must be diagnosed, and reteaching, guided by the diagnosis, must be undertaken in order to achieve the goal of education. In either case the efforts of the instructor, in so far as testing is concerned, need be directed primarily to discover whether the teaching objectives have been realized.

### THE DETERMINATION OF LEARNING OUTCOMES IN A SUBJECT

From the foregoing propositions it follows that an essential prerequisite to the construction of a valid testing program in any line of educational effort is the determination of objectives, or learning outcomes: First, in the field or course under consideration; second, and more specifically, in each of the units comprising the course.<sup>1</sup> In the social studies, for

example, the major learning outcome to be attained or the chief change to be brought about may be summarized as follows: The inculcation of an understanding and an appreciation of the pupil's social environment to the end that the pupil may contribute helpfully to the promotion of the common welfare.

In the field of history, to be more specific, the major learning outcomes which should be sought fall under two large divisions: First, those to be derived from the *nature of historical study*; second, those to be developed from the *character of the content of history*. The development of a sense of evidence and a sense of sympathy, or tolerance, represent learning outcomes of the first sort; the acquisition of a sense of continuity and of impermanence are of the second sort. The testing of both kinds of learning products deserves attention.

### TESTING A SENSE OF EVIDENCE

Unfortunately, course-makers too often formulate lists of worthy objectives only to forget or ignore such objectives in the planning of the everyday activities of the classroom and in the construction of testing devices. It is obvious that if the objectives mentioned in the preceding paragraph are really to dominate the work in history, the class activities must be such as to induce the learning outcomes desired, and the test items must be of such character as to reveal whether the ends sought are actually attained.

For example, can a sense of evidence be taught? Can it be tested?

If by a sense of evidence is meant the ability to discover sources of reliable information, to weigh simple testimony, to evaluate varying degrees of credibility, and to differentiate between fact, opinion, supposition, and hearsay, both questions can be answered in the affirmative. For example, a group of high school pupils who had received instruction in the rudiments of historical criticism and who had from time to time worked out simple exercises in historical research were given as a part of their final examination this problem:

### EXAMPLE A

Arrange the following statements in the order of ease of proving or disproving each, putting a figure one (1) before the easiest to prove true or false, a figure two (2) before the next easiest, and so on.

a. Franklin played a greater part than Washington in establishing the independence of the United States.

- b. Arnold became a traitor because he thought he had been wronged by Congress.
- c. Patrick Henry opposed the adoption of the Constitution.
- d. If Washington were now living, he would favor prohibition.

Twenty-two of the twenty-six pupils in the class solved all parts of the problem correctly, only one pupil in the group missing all the items. In contrast it may be said that out of 399 teachers, most of whom had had no definite instruction in high school or college in the weighing of historical evidence, only 136 solved the problem correctly. A sense of evidence can be taught and can be tested.

#### TESTING A SENSE OF CONTINUITY

The same is true of a sense of continuity. Most teachers of history believe that a study of the past is valuable because it explains the world of today. Occasionally curriculum experts go so far as to advocate including in courses in history only such aspects of the past as will illuminate the present. But here, too, testing devices designed to reveal whether boys and girls actually understand the present as a result of their study of history; that is, whether the teaching goal is attained, are surprisingly few and may well challenge the thought and efforts of all who believe that the objective under consideration is both desirable and attainable.

One of the few serviceable tests of chronological sequence is of the arrangement type.<sup>2</sup> The following example is from a unit on the American Revolution:

#### EXAMPLE B

Number the following events in accordance with the time order of their occurrence, placing the figure (1) before the earliest, a figure (2) before the next earliest, and so on:

- Battle of Lexington.
- Treaty of peace between the United States and Great Britain.
- The Stamp Act.
- American alliance with France.
- The Declaration of Independence.
- Battle of Saratoga.
- The Intolerable or Coercive Acts.

Another test which has proved valuable in revealing the extent to which the relation between past and present is grasped by pupils is of the essay type, to be discussed later in this article. As the study of a unit approaches the end, the members of the class are asked to explain the bearing of the movement upon conditions or situations in our own time. The following example is from a unit on the development of nationality.

#### EXAMPLE C

How do events, or conditions, which you have studied in connection with the unit, "The Development of Nationality," help to explain the following:

1. In 1815 Italy was a geographical expression; in 1920 Italy was a consolidated kingdom.
2. In 1815 France was under a monarchical government; in 1928 France was a republic.
3. In 1815 Austria-Hungary was one of the most important countries of Europe; today Austria-Hungary is only a memory.
4. In 1848 the Pope was one of the temporal rulers in Europe; in 1920 he was only the head of a great church.
5. In 1750 few people in Europe were nationalistic; in

1920 there were few people in Europe who were not nationalistic.

6. Excluding Italy and Germany, the map of Europe in 1815 showed ten countries; excluding the same areas, the map of 1928 shows twenty-four countries.

When pupils are able to explain the facts listed above in the light of the understanding resulting from their study of the development of nationality the evidence indicates that the learning outcome sought from the unit, in so far as it relates to a grasp of the relationship between the past and the present, has been reasonably well attained. But need exists, let it be repeated, for the construction of other types of tests to reveal the inculcation of a sense of continuity which, it is believed, comes only from the study of the past.

#### THE DETERMINATION OF LEARNING OUTCOMES IN A UNIT

To this point the discussion has centered primarily upon the value of tests as devices to show the realization or the non-realization of the objectives sought in a subject as a whole, history serving as an illustration. But, as pointed out above, effectiveness in teaching necessitates also the determination of the learning outcomes to be achieved in each of the units which make up a given course. This aspect of the matter now requires attention.

The matter under consideration will be clarified by examining a typical unit. In the course in United States history, as now taught in the University of Chicago High School, one of the units is entitled, "Testing the National Government." The material selected for the attainment of the desired learning-product is drawn almost wholly from that period of American history lying between the years 1789 and 1815.

The unit, however, is not designed as a study of the times of the Federalists and the early Republicans. It is not planned to embrace all of the important personages, dates, and events between the inauguration of Washington and the ratification of the Treaty of Ghent. Indeed, some of the most important incidents of the period are intentionally omitted; as, for example, the annexation of Louisiana, the Lewis and Clarke expedition, the invention of the steamboat, and the building of the Cumberland road, any one of which considered merely as an event in history is worthy of careful study.

But the unit as constructed is limited to a *single* line of progress, namely, to the development of our national government through repeated tests and strains from a plan on parchment to a strong, working agency serving the entire nation. The realization of this truth is the major learning outcome sought. With this objective in view, only incidents and episodes which bear upon the central theme are selected for study, episodes such as the Lewis and Clarke expedition and the invention of the steamboat being intentionally excluded as for the most part unrelated to the unit and, therefore, distractive in character.

*Understanding*, in short, is the chief end sought in a social science unit. Hence, assimilative material is selected solely with a view to its suitability to

promote understanding. Study activities are planned such as will develop understanding. Test items are constructed so as to reveal the presence or absence of understanding.

The task is not easy. It involves first of all a consideration and determination of what constitutes understanding in the social studies. It requires, in the second place, the construction of work sheets or guide sheets composed of exercises designed to induce understanding. It necessitates, in the third place, the devising of tests which measure the elements that are characteristic of understanding—and nothing else. The scope of this article is limited to the first and the third of the elements just named.

#### THE NATURE OF UNDERSTANDING

What, then, is *understanding*? What does one mean when he says he *understands* an event, a movement, or a principle? Is understanding the same as memory? If not, wherein lies the difference? It is obvious that a teacher can scarcely teach pupils to *understand* a subject or a unit if the teacher does not know what understanding is.

So far as the social studies are concerned, perhaps so far as all studies are concerned, the essence of understanding is the apprehension of *relationships*. He who grasps the *connection* between events; who sees how things fit; who discerns the ties that bind multitudinous facts together into a great historic movement, he, we say, *understands*. And the extent of his understanding depends upon how far-reaching his grasp of relationships is.

The teaching and testing of understanding, of course, involve a further analysis of the term "relationships." Considered from the standpoint of practical classroom needs, the major relationships essential for understanding history, for example, may be grouped under three main heads: (1) recognition of time relationships or chronological sequence; (2) discernment of causal relationships or comprehension of the connection between cause and effect; (3) appraisement of values or discrimination between details of lesser and of greater importance. He who apprehends clearly these three types of relationships in a unit in history may be said to understand the unit.

#### THE TESTING OF UNDERSTANDING

If the foregoing analysis is correct, the problem of constructing tests of historical understanding becomes then a problem of devising exercises which will reveal the presence or absence of the type of understanding under investigation.

The arrangement test explained earlier in this article (Example B) is a suitable device for ascertaining the development of an appreciation of chronological sequence. The essay test illustrated above (Example C) is in like manner a serviceable instrument for testing a pupil's grasp of relationships between the past and the present.

The essay test is also a valuable device to test understanding of causal relationships. Satisfactory evidence of such comprehension is provided by pupils who can answer in coherent, well-knit paragraphs

such questions as these: "Explain the operation of cause and effect in the events leading to the American Revolution" or "Describe the successive steps in the career of Napoleon, showing how each contributed to his rise or fall."

The essay test, however, has serious shortcomings. A test should measure the element under investigation—in this case understanding—and nothing else. The essay test measures not only understanding, but also organizing ability of no mean order as well as power of effective expression. Moreover, wide variations in grades usually appear when an essay-test paper is read by different teachers because the grading is largely subjective and different teachers generally hold different standards. For example, the grades assigned by expert readers to a history examination paper of the essay type varied from a minimum of 40 to a maximum of 90.

In short, the essay test involves three variables instead of one. The results of such a test, therefore, may mean something very different from what the tester assumes. The point under discussion is so fundamental to the effective use of tests and is so frequently overlooked or ignored that an illustration may be desirable.

One of the widely used, so-called standardized tests in history purports in one group of exercises to measure the ability of pupils to judge character. In reality the test measures first the ability of a pupil to recognize the meaning of words, and second, his ability to judge character. If he misses the former, the latter, which is the announced purpose of the test, loses all validity. The exercises in question consist of the names of historical characters after each of which appear four adjectives. The pupil is directed to underline the adjective which best describes the character of the man whose name stands at the beginning of the line. For example, the name of Edwin Stanton is followed by these adjectives: "inefficient, smooth, ruthless, melancholy." What percentage of a normal group of junior high school pupils can define the foregoing words properly or use them correctly as applied to character? All who cannot do so, will, of course, be unable to determine which of the four adjectives, if any, properly characterizes Lincoln's great Secretary of War. In such cases the test will be invalid, because it measures vocabulary recognition instead of character-judgment ability, which it is supposed to measure. Similar weakness, it should be repeated, mars the usefulness of the essay type of test, although its value in other respects is too great to justify its entire disuse.

For testing a grasp of relative values, the third of the relationships set forth above as characteristic of historical understanding, a variation of the multiple-choice test has proved serviceable. However, instead of following the customary plan of constructing such tests with but one correct response to each of the test items, a more effective method is to vary the practice and to provide exercises in which all of the responses to a given question may be correct, but with different degrees of adequacy, or in which two responses may be right and the others wrong, or in which one or two

of the responses may be right and the others partly right and partly wrong. When the tests are so constructed, the pupils should be directed to indicate the best response and also to show by appropriate symbols their evaluation of the other options. The following is an illustration of such a test item from a unit entitled, "The Development of Nationality."

EXAMPLE D

Put a cross (x) before answers that are entirely wrong; a question mark (?) before answers that are partly right and partly wrong; a figure one (1) before the best answer to the question; and a figure two (2), three (3), or four (4) before answers deserving such marks. Be prepared to give reasons for your decisions:

Why did Great Britain remain neutral during the Franco-Prussian war?

- a. Great Britain believed in non-interference in the war so long as her own interests were not endangered.
- b. Great Britain believed the war would be long and that she could profit from the resulting weakness of her neighbors.
- c. Great Britain had never taken part in European wars and she preferred to stay out of continental struggles.
- d. Great Britain believed that she could profit more by

selling goods to the belligerents than by entering the conflict as a participant.

In conclusion, it may be said that scientific testing in the social studies is still in the pioneer stage. The road to progress lies in a recognition of the fact that testing is but a means to an end and that the end in view is the improvement of instruction. When thus conceived, tests will be devised and used so as to serve as valuable aids to the clarifying of objectives, to the selection and organization of subject-matter, to the planning of study activities, to the formulation of remedial measures in instruction, and to the evaluation of various types of teaching procedure.

<sup>1</sup> It should perhaps be pointed out that the selection and organization of subject-matter, as well as the formulation of the entire teaching procedure, should also be determined by the learning outcomes sought.

<sup>2</sup> For a scholarly discussion of the chronological test, including valuable suggestions for a rapid method of scoring results, see H. E. Wilson, "The Continuity Test in History Teaching," *School Review*, Vol. XXXIV, pp. 679-684.

## Validity of Tests in the Social Studies

BY OLIVER R. FLOYD, M. A., PITTSBURGH, PA.

Does the average test given in the history class really test for the presence or absence of the desired learning product? This is the question with which this article is concerned. In other words, are our examinations valid tests? "By validity is meant the degree to which a test or examination measures what it purports to measure."<sup>1</sup> To violate this principle of validity is to lose much of the value of the test. It may still serve as a motivating force spurring the pupil to greater effort by holding over him the dark threat of failure. It may be used to determine the relative standing of pupils provided we consider only the achievement on the particular test as a basis of classification. But it cannot be used to determine with any degree of accuracy how near we have come to achieving the real objectives of teaching which, in recent years, we have become so fond of formulating. How can we be sure that a boy appreciates the duties of citizenship (an example of a teaching objective) even though he has made a perfect score in a test requiring a knowledge of the various provisions of the Constitution? Still less can we be sure that he understands the requirements of citizenship because he gives evidence of having memorized what the textbook had to say on the subject.

### REACTION AGAINST THE OLD TYPE EXAMINATION

As early as 1845 Horace Mann championed the development of some more objective form to replace the traditional essay type of examination. This movement was given its greatest impetus following the investigations of Starch and others showing the unreliability of teachers' marks. It resolved itself into a reaction against mere memory tests. The

older examinations, of course, have been attacked on other grounds, but we are here concerned only with this phase—what did they measure? No general statement can be risked. Teachers, subjects, and situations vary. At worst, and no one can say how general was this situation, the examination called for the restatement of facts memorized from the text book. Educators became dissatisfied. Entire reliance upon memorization was discredited. For this, among other reasons, new types of examinations were devised.

### THE NEW TYPE EXAMINATION STILL PLACES EMPHASIS ALMOST ENTIRELY ON SUBJECT-MATTER

Advocates of the various forms of the new type examination, true-false, single choice, multiple choice, best answer, completion, etc., believe that they have discovered a much more objective form of test. This is undoubtedly true. But how about the question of validity? Do the newer tests provide any better means of determining the absence or presence of the desired learning products where these objectives are attitudes, concepts, or ideals? Many more questions may be placed on the examination paper; we may test the pupil's grasp of all phases of the subject-matter; a more complete idea of the amount of content which the pupil has retained—such are the statements generally found in articles advocating the new type examinations. The emphasis is still on subject-matter. A random survey of examination papers will bear out the same conclusion. It is not the purpose of this discussion to decry the merits of such tests. We should, however, be conscious of the type of thing such tests measure.

## THE OBJECTIVES OF THE SOCIAL STUDIES

What are the objectives which we should desire to test? Most teachers are familiar with the seven Cardinal Objectives of Secondary Education or other classifications of general aims such as social-civic, economic-vocational, individualistic-avocational. These are, of course, general aims for the high school as a whole. Every teacher should develop specific aims for his subject. He should then try to make the work of the course contribute to these ends. More effective results may be attained if the teacher is conscious of the contribution each unit or section of the course is to make. For example, the course in Problems of Democracy should contribute to the social-civic aim of education. A more tangible aim for this particular subject should certainly be to acquaint the pupils with some of the more important problems facing the American people. A unit of the course considering the question of poverty might have as one of its objectives the development of the proper attitude toward street beggars. Now the point which this paper seeks to make is this—in order to determine the effectiveness of our teaching we should test for the product toward which the teaching has been directed. In the illustration just cited, we should test the pupil's attitude toward street beggars by testing his attitude toward street beggars. We should present questions which call for the functioning of this attitude, not necessarily for a knowledge of the number of beggars in the United States, or the various causes of poverty.

## HOW CAN WE FOCUS THE EXAMINATION ON THESE OBJECTIVES?

We cannot focus the examination on the desired learning products by merely substituting one of the newer forms for the old essay type of test. This problem is not one of form, but of content. Whether the question calls for a long discussion or may be answered in a single word is immaterial. The important thing to consider is this—what thought processes is the pupil required to employ in answering the question? Does the question call for the exercise of the ideal, attitude, or adaptation set up as an objective?

Just how to provide the opportunity for the display of these attitudes is a difficult question. Presumably the child enters the study of a unit with an attitude which should be modified, changed, or strengthened by the learning process. How can we set up a situation which will rather objectively demonstrate whether the desired modifications have taken place? The writer cannot, at present, satisfactorily answer this question. He would, however, present the following as suggestive of the line along which we might proceed in the solution of the problem.

## SUBJECT—AMERICAN HISTORY

Unit—*The beginnings of American ideals and institutions in self-government*

Subject-matter or assimilative material—

Mayflower Compact.

Development of Colonial governments.

The charter troubles.

The growth of the following ideals:

- a) Religious tolerance.
- b) Separation of church and state.
- c) Public education.
- d) Freedom of the press.

Objectives: Specific adaptations or attitudes desired—

- 1. Tolerance for those of other religious beliefs.
- 2. Belief that people should enjoy all the rights and privileges of citizens, irrespective of their religious affiliations.
- 3. Belief in education for all at public expense.
- 4. Tolerance for the opinions of others and realization of the right of each to publish his views.
- 5. Realization of the importance of individual participation and interest in political affairs—especially local affairs.

## TESTING FOR THESE ADAPTATIONS: EXAMINATION QUESTIONS

*Attitude 1*

Mudville has two churches, Presbyterian and Baptist. All the people in this town are much interested in one church or the other. The superintendent of schools is a Presbyterian, all of the teachers are either Presbyterians or Baptists.

A man who satisfies all educational requirements and has had five years of very successful teaching experience applies for a vacant position in the high school. He is a Methodist. Should he be appointed? Give reasons for your answer.

*Attitude 2*

Which man, according to the qualifications given below, should make the most acceptable President of the United States? Defend your choice. Consider all the qualifications:

## Mr. A

Age—52.  
Nationality—American.  
Religion—Roman Catholic.  
Occupation—Lawyer.  
Political Experience—  
Governor of State—2 terms.  
Member of U. S. Senate—1 term.  
Member of House of Representatives—3 terms.  
Ambassador to Sweden—5 years.  
Party—Republican.

## Mr. B

Age—55.  
Nationality—American.  
Religion—Congregationalist.  
Occupation—Lawyer.  
Political Experience—  
Member House of Representatives—2 terms.  
Mayor of city of 60,000 population—1 term.  
Party—Republican.

*Attitude 3*

A bill is introduced into the state legislature providing for the abandonment of schools entirely supported by the state and fixing the following tuition charges:

- Grades 1-4—free (state support)
- Grades 5-6—\$100 per year
- Grades 7-9—\$150 per year
- Grades 10-12—\$200 per year

(No free supplies or textbooks after Grade 4.)  
Defend or oppose this measure.

*Attitude 4*

Check those items in the following list which you think should be barred by law from publication in America:

- Bolshevik pamphlets.
- Attacks against the policies of the President of the United States.
- Immoral stories.
- Tracts issued by the Mormon Church.
- Criticisms of the city council.
- Unfounded rumors defaming an individual's character.
- Reports of rather scandalous facts brought out in testimony in murder and divorce cases which have been settled by the courts.
- Fraudulent advertisements.

- Publications of the Society for the Promotion of Atheism.
- Articles against the Prohibition Amendment.
- Magazine articles seeking to abolish much of the absolute power granted by the Constitution to the Supreme Court.

*Attitude 5*

An amendment to the Constitution is proposed providing for the abandonment throughout the United States of popular local government. All local officers, instead of being chosen by the people of the community, are to be appointed by the President, with the approval of the Senate. List points for or against the proposed amendment.

The natural test of the effectiveness of our teaching comes in life situations. These situations very often occur in the life of the pupil after graduation from school. The teacher cannot always witness the pupil's reaction to the situation even when the occasion arises in the school. The next best thing is to present the pupil with imaginary situations which will provide opportunity for the functioning of the desired attitude provided it has been acquired. Thus in the example above, the pupil on the examination paper is confronted with a number of case problems. His reaction to these problems or situations should give some indication as to the pupil's ability to use the attitude or concepts toward which the teaching was directed.<sup>2</sup> It will be noticed that form is unimportant. Either the essay type or the newer objective type of test may be employed. The essential thing is to create a situation which will provide opportunity for the functioning of the desired quality.

For the following reasons questions of this nature would seem desirable in testing for real learning products:

1. A more natural situation for the expression of pupil attitude is provided.

2. Facts and assimilative material will appear in the answer only to reinforce the pupil's position. This is the way in which such facts will be used in life situations. Facts are a means to an end, not an end in themselves.
3. The examination itself, by illustration, helps to relate the subject to real life.
4. It calls the teacher's attention to the lasting values of his subject.

The following defects should be noted:

1. Pupils may react correctly, but yet act from other motives than those which the teacher supposes caused the reaction. This difficulty may be partly offset by requiring the inclusion of reasons for the answer.
2. Pupils may not risk their own ideas and attitudes, but answer to please the teacher. To guard against this, individual initiative and expression should be encouraged at all times in the social studies class.
3. Entire reliance on tests of this form may encourage careless class work. To insure the development of habits of thoroughness this type of test should be supplemented by others designed to test the acquisition of the basic facts, the completion of assignments, etc. But teachers should be conscious of the purpose which such tests serve.

<sup>1</sup> Ruch, G. M., "The Improvement of the Written Examination," p. 13.

<sup>2</sup> See Ruch, G. M., "The Improvement of the Written Examination," pp. 86-90, for examples of the same basic idea applied to English literature. In testing appreciation of beauty in poetry the test consists of a variety of samples of poetry. The pupil must choose the one which he considers most beautiful in form and rhythm. The same method is followed in testing for appreciation of poetic feeling.

## The Use of Informational Tests in American History Teaching

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The specific problem with which this paper deals may be stated in the form of a question. To what extent can the present standardized tests in American history be profitably used by the classroom teacher? Or, stated in a slightly different form, the question reads: To what extent will the present tests measure the results of a particular course in American history as taught in the average junior or senior high school?

Assuming that the test maker is able to construct a reliable test from the point of view of statistical requirements, the history teacher still needs to know whether it measures the things that he has tried to teach. Progressive history teachers are not satisfied with the present tests for the reason that they do not conform to more recent progress in the teaching field. They emphasize historical information, whereas in

the minds of many teachers there are other abilities to be tested in history which are of greater value. But in approaching the problem stated above it is necessary, first of all, to accept the present tests as they are, with their informational emphasis, and honestly seek to discover how much use can profitably be made of them.

### CONSIDERATIONS INVOLVED

*A lack of definite objectives.* The prime consideration to be recognized by anyone attempting to deal with this subject is the fact that as yet there has been no agreement reached among history teachers as to what should be the objectives of history teaching. Consequently, the content of history courses over the country varies widely.

Some writers maintain that citizenship is the chief aim in history teaching. Griffith has stated definitely that "the outcome of history study is ability to solve present-day problems."<sup>1</sup> A perspective of the growth and development of present institutions is urged by others. The development of ideals, such as patriotism, has had its adherents in large numbers. Mere knowledge of great men and events, a knowledge of facts for their own sake, is uppermost in the minds of some teachers of history.

Because of such diversity of aims, with corresponding diversity in organization and content of courses, it has been impossible to standardize the tests in history to the degree that they have been standardized in the more closely organized fields where objectives are generally agreed upon. There is a tendency, however, to place upon the test maker himself the responsibility for determining what the objectives of history teaching are. According to E. U. Rugg:<sup>2</sup>

The problem before those interested in the testing movement in this field is to demonstrate what are the objectives of historical instruction. Then will quantitative evidence prove to us what we should aim to do in teaching this subject.

Professor Tryon writes in a similar vein:<sup>3</sup>

In reality the first step in the construction of adequate and comprehensive tests in history has never been taken by any of the investigators to date. This step is scientifically to determine the particularized objectives of history teaching in each unit of instruction in the subject.

In view of such considerations as are embodied in the above statements, it is useless to criticize the present tests on the grounds of their non-conformance to one's own views regarding the teaching objectives of history. If that is to be the basis of acceptance of a test, it simply means that no attention will be given to the new type tests by history teachers until the question of objectives has been finally agreed upon.

*Information is necessary for attainment in any objective.* But a further consideration should receive attention before the present history tests are condemned as wholly inadequate. To attain any one of the possible teaching aims of history one thing is always needed, namely, historical information. Whether a teacher considers information as an end or merely as a means to an end, he cannot teach history without demanding from the pupil the acquisition of certain knowledge of historical facts. Tryon assumes that any predetermined objectives would include a specific quantity of knowledge of the subject, and suggests that the big problem will be to determine what is worth remembering in each unit or field of history. "For example," he says, "suppose the list of important things in United States history should turn out to contain 1,000 items, a test could be constructed by selecting a certain number of them."<sup>4</sup> The same fact is also recognized by Harlan:<sup>5</sup>

Successful achievement in any subject implies at least the acquisition, by the pupil, of the essential knowledge in that subject. There may be many other outcomes from the study of history, such as ideals, perspectives, points of

view, and appreciations, but in the last analysis they are all dependent upon the essential facts and body of information presented to the pupil.

The author of the above statement drew his conclusion from the well-known study of Buckingham's,<sup>6</sup> the main thesis of which is the claim that information is an index to other historical abilities. From that assertion it would follow that in order to measure historical judgment, appreciation, or reasoning, it is only necessary to measure informational ability, which is far more subject to objective measurement than any other historical ability.

*Only one ability can be tested at a time.* But it is not necessary to accept the conclusions of Buckingham's study in order to utilize the new type tests now available. According to the law of the single variable only one thing can be tested at a time.<sup>7</sup> This rule is commonly applied to the three variables of measurement (quality, difficulty, and amount or time) which are always present in the measurement of any single ability. The principle, therefore, would operate even more potently in the case of a number of abilities.

It is, therefore, evident that, regardless of the extent to which pure information is taught or the use to which it is put, *it must be measured apart* from the other factors of historical ability. Since all teachers will desire to measure information as well as the other factors, a possible use for informational tests at once appears.

It should be remembered also that some of the recent tests attempt to measure other things besides historical ability. These attempts are of great significance, but the present discussion will continue to center on the use of informational tests, or the informational sections of the more comprehensive tests.

#### ANALYSIS OF TESTS

Assuming the technical construction of a test to be satisfactory, it would appear that the value of an informational test in history is to be determined by the worth of the information which is called for in answering the questions or performing the exercises of the test. It is desirable to know two things about a test: First, what is the relative emphasis that is placed upon the different periods of history and the different classes of facts, and second, what specific topics are treated and what specific items of information called for?

In order to answer these questions with respect to American history the attempt is here made to analyze a number of American history tests. It is hoped thereby to be able to show exactly what information is called for and where the emphasis is placed in each of the tests examined. The tabulated results should reveal what, in the minds of the test makers, is worth remembering in the field of American history. Against this list of facts or topics one can then check his own ideas and teaching aims.

Ten different tests, ranging in date of publication from 1915 to 1924, were examined. The one published in 1915 is out of print, but is included for pur-

pose of comparison. The information required in each question or exercise was culled out<sup>8</sup> and classified according to the eight periods, or large divisions, of American history listed by Professor Tryon.<sup>9</sup> Within each of the eight divisions the material was further classified in whatever arrangement it seemed most naturally to fall; when no other plan appeared feasible the items were simply listed chronologically.

It was necessary in the tables to designate the tests by numbers. Since the number of the test was made to correspond with its rank in date of publication (except where more than one test has the same date of publication) it is possible to make some comparison of recent tests with earlier ones. The tests and their numbers are as follows:

1. Sackett (Bell and McCollum), *A Scale in United States History* ..... 1915
2. Starch, *American History Test*, Series A 1916
3. Davis, *Exercises in United States History*, Tests A and B ..... 1917
4. Harlan, *Test of Information in History* 1917
5. Van Wagenen, *The Van Wagenen American History Scales*, Information Scales A and B ..... 1919
6. Barr, *Diagnostic Tests in American History*, Forms 2a and 2b (Revised, 1920). 1920
7. Hahn, *The Hahn History Scales*, (Revised, 1922) ..... 1922
8. Pressy and Richards, *A test for the Understanding of American History*, Tests 3 and 4 ..... 1922
9. Gregory, *Gregory Tests in American History*, Forms A and B ..... 1923
10. Witham, *Comprehensive Seventh and Eighth Grade History Tests* ..... 1924

*Emphasis placed upon the different periods.* The analysis provided a means of noting the emphasis placed upon the different periods of American history by the various test makers. The Davis test (Number 3 in the Table) attempts to cover only the colonial period, but the other nine are supposed to cover the entire period of American history. The emphasis is indicated by the number of topics<sup>10</sup> treated in each period, respectively. According to that basis the emphasis placed upon the eight main periods by each test is shown numerically in Table I.

Periods	Test Numbers										Totals
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	
I. Introductory							3	2	6	1	12
II. 1492-1607	4		3	6	4	13	6	14	6		56
III. 1607-1763	4	8	33	2	15	10	33	8	47	14	174
IV. 1763-1789	7	9	2	6	13	16	24	10	35	14	136
V. 1789-1829	3	16		6	15	11	25	13	25	7	121
VI. 1829-1865	5	19		2	19	8	26	22	14	10	125
VII. 1865-1897	2	4		9	2	14	14	7	6		58
VIII. 1897-1927	1	1		5	2	33	8	9	1		60
Totals	22	61	35	19	82	53	171	83	157	59	742

Even excluding the Davis Colonial Test, there are more topics drawn from the colonial period than from any other in the making of the tests. This does not necessarily mean that more *questions* are based on that period, although it very likely does so indicate.

By disregarding the 35 topics of the Davis test it is possible to picture in graphic form the relative emphasis upon the eight periods by the combined tests of nine authors. Figure 1 thus pictures the "Totals" (vertical) column of Table I.

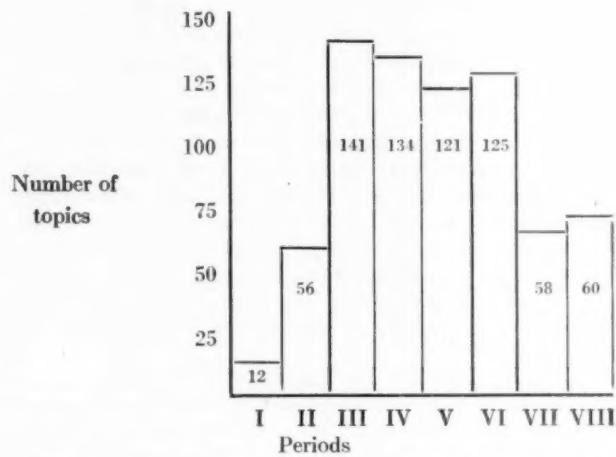


Fig. 1. Distribution of topics of nine tests among the eight periods.

The value of the above figure lies in the fact that it shows where the informational emphasis has been placed by the tests taken as a whole. The same thing for each individual test may be seen from the various columns of Table I. No single test will be found to vary widely from the distribution shown above.

It is evident from these distributions that periods III to VI, inclusive, receive by far the largest share of attention. The European background for American history and the period since the Civil War are slighted. This fact is brought out more clearly by Figure 2 below, which represents the grouping of the topics into three periods instead of eight.

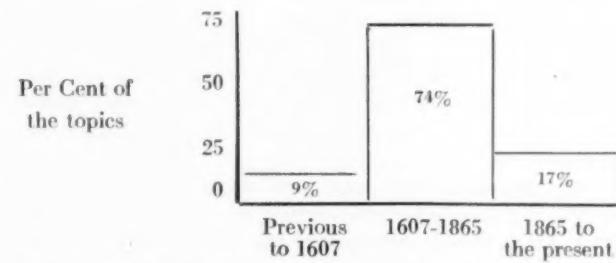


Fig. 2. Distribution of the topics of nine tests among three periods of American history.

Thus three-fourths of the topics are drawn from the period from Jamestown to Appomattox. A trifle more than one-sixth deal with our history since the Civil War.

It is also interesting to note the emphasis of each individual test upon this later period. The list of percentages for each test for topics falling in the

period since the Civil War is as follows:

1. Sackett	(1915)	14 %
2. Starch	(1916)	8 %
3. Davis	(1917)	(Not comparable)
4. Harlan	(1917)	0
5. Van Wagenen	(1919)	17 %
6. Barr	(1920)	7.5%
7. Hahn	(1920)	27 %
8. Pressy & Richards	(1922)	27 %
9. Gregory	(1923)	10 %
10. Witham	(1924)	12 %

The Hahn and the Pressy-Richards tests are clearly superior in this respect, as judged by the more progressive standards of history teaching.

*Emphasis upon different kinds of facts.* The emphasis upon different kinds of facts may be found by the same method that has been employed in determining the emphasis upon different periods, namely, by counting the topics which deal with the kinds of information being considered.

Information on military events is not called for in large amount. Seven wars are treated by all of the tests combined, namely, the French and Indian, Revolutionary, War of 1812, Mexican, Civil, Spanish-American, and World War. The topics dealing with the strictly military facts of these wars are found to comprise 12 per cent. of all the topics. This, however, would be too large a per cent. in the minds of many teachers.

Another class of information may be distinguished as the Social-Economic-Religious-Educational-Scientific group of facts. This represents a class of information on which more stress is being laid by history teachers and educators in general. It is found that 15.5 per cent. of all the topics fall in this class.

The remainder of the topics may be classified roughly as the Political-Geographic group, thus comprising 72.5 per cent. of all the topics. These groupings and distribution may be taken as a rough measure of emphasis, although a number of arbitrary decisions were necessarily made in classifying the topics. It is probable that the tests represent the usual emphasis of our school textbooks. Hence, in the same manner as many teachers are supplementing the textbook with other books and material, in order among other things, to provide the needed emphasis upon the different periods and the different classes of facts, so will the classroom teacher find it necessary to supplement the present tests with other means of measuring information not emphasized sufficiently by the tests. In that respect the present informational tests are weak; they do not represent the more progressive objectives as to emphasis upon periods of history and classes of facts.

For the purpose of comparison, the individual tests are listed again, in Table II, showing the emphasis which each gives to the three groups of facts discussed above.

TABLE II  
PER CENT. OF TOPICS OF EACH TEST FALLING INTO THE  
THREE GROUPS OF FACTS

Test	Date	Three Groups of Facts		
		Military	Econ., etc.	Political- Social- Geo- graphic
1. Sackett	1915	45 %	18 %	37 %
2. Starch	1916	16 %	2 %	82 %
3. Davis	1917	9 %	26 %	65 %
4. Harlan	1917	21 %	0	79 %
5. Van Wagenen	1919	12 %	30.5%	57.5%
6. Barr	1920	19 %	4 %	77 %
7. Hahn	1920	7.5%	16 %	76.5%
8. Pressy-Richards	1922	13 %	20 %	67 %
9. Gregory	1923	4.5%	12 %	83.5%
10. Witham	1924	15 %	20 %	65 %

In the opinion of the writer the Van Wagenen test is quite superior to the others from the standpoint of emphasis upon the different kinds of facts. However, one will naturally judge the value of a test by his own teaching objectives, which in turn may vary according to the purpose of a particular course. Thus the discussion returns to the starting-point, namely, the question of objectives. If this study shows anything at all it brings out once more the need of more clearly defined objectives in the teaching of history, and further emphasizes the fact that the teaching aims for a particular course will depend upon what is taken as the general purpose of history teaching.

#### CONCLUSIONS

The facts brought out above should contribute something toward the answer to the question stated in the opening paragraph. The factors which determine the value of any test are of three kinds—statistical, psychological, and relating to content. Only the last one is dealt with in this paper. From the point of view of content an informational test is useful to the extent to which it calls for the information which has been taught. Hence, on the basis of the findings presented in the preceding pages, a teacher or a group of teachers with common aims may judge as to the value of a test for his or their purpose.

The principle underlying the above conclusion is important. It means that the testing of "representative" facts of history will not suffice to measure informational ability. Arithmetical ability, reading ability, and such, may be measured by using representative examples or problems, or typical reading material. But it appears that in the "content" subjects, when testing for information, the specific information must be called for in the test if we are to know whether the pupil has it or not. In this respect history is analogous to spelling. Hence, as in the field of spelling investigators have sought to name the specific words which are most essential to be learned, so should analytical studies in history be made in order to determine what historical facts should be mastered for a given course of study. But in history it is further necessary to determine with what degree of familiarity each fact should be learned. Should the pupil be able to reproduce a

fact by unaided recall, or by mere recognition? Should it be recalled in detail or only in a general way? This question of familiarity has not been considered in the present study, but it undoubtedly constitutes one of the major problems in the matter of history testing.

In the present stage of the testing movement, therefore, one is faced with the necessity of first defining his objectives and then selecting the facts which contribute to those objectives. Even after he has done this he is able to utilize a test only to the extent to which it calls for the general class of facts emphasized by his own course. If the test makers of the future will contribute to the content phase of the problem, not alone to the statistical and psychological aspects, the history teacher will be able to utilize the informational test as a teaching device in much the same way that the Ayers Spelling Scale is now utilized by the elementary teacher, and the value of the tests will be increased many fold.

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#### NOTES

<sup>1</sup> "Harlan's American History Test in the New Trier Township Schools," *School Review*, XXVIII (1920), p. 698.

<sup>2</sup> "Character and Value of Standardized Tests in History," *School Review*, XXVII (1919), p. 764.

<sup>3</sup> Tryon, R. M., *The Teaching of History in Junior and Senior High Schools*, p. 172.

<sup>4</sup> *Ibid.*, p. 173.

<sup>5</sup> "Educational Measurement in the Field of History," *Journal of Educational Research*, II (1920), p. 850.

<sup>6</sup> "A Proposed Index of Efficiency in Teaching United States History," *ibid.*, I (1920), pp. 16ff.

<sup>7</sup> See Burgess, "The Law of the Single Variable," Chap. IV, in *The Measurement of Silent Reading*. Dept. of Education, Russell Sage Foundation.

Since various types of questions were used in the tests, it was necessary to translate each one into terms of a direct question, after which the information called for by the question was expressed in the form of a topic or sub-topic. For example, in the case of a multiple-answer type of question, it was assumed that the answer called for a knowledge of the facts contained in *each* of the (multiple) answers, not merely the correct one. Thus, as many topics were listed as there were choices for the answer. Similar decisions were called for by true-false exercises and other types.

<sup>8</sup> *The Teaching of History in Junior and Senior High Schools*, p. 218.

<sup>9</sup> In counting the topics, a topic was not counted for a particular test when one or more of its sub-topics were treated by that test, but each sub-topic was counted as one topic.

## Problems of American Democracy

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Philadelphia

# Report on Survey Test in History of the United States, Grade 7B

Conducted June, 1928, by Division of Educational Research,  
Board of Public Education, Philadelphia

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## CONSTRUCTION AND PURPOSE OF THE TEST

A survey test in history for grade 7 was constructed in co-operation with representatives of the history committee. The test is based upon the requirements of the course of study in history for grade 7\*. It comprises six sub-tests, each designed to test a specific phase of instruction in history, and each representing a type of objective testing procedure adapted for use in regular classroom work.

Sub-test I exemplifies the one-word answer type of test which may be used effectively to stimulate definiteness of information, and to insure adequate knowledge of essential historical facts.

Sub-test II is a multiple choice test designed to test soundness of judgment upon the relative importance of events in the history of the United States.

Sub-test III illustrates the use of a matching device, and emphasizes the connection of historical characters with important historical events.

Sub-test IV is a multiple choice test similar in form to sub-test II. The content, however, stresses a different aspect of history teaching, i. e., time sequence. It is important to note that knowledge of sequence is tested without calling for the exact memory of specific dates.

Sub-test V is of the matching type similar to that of sub-test III. Here is illustrated an objective means of testing a pupil's command of the vocabulary of history. In proportion as concepts are retained and made usable by appropriate labels, it is essential that history instruction address itself to the building and broadening of a specialized vocabulary.

Sub-test VI is again of the multiple choice type, testing a recognition of cause and effect relationships among historical events.

It is important to note that these testing devices, although completely objective, are in no sense limited to the measurement of factual knowledge. In addition, these tests call for the exercise of judgment, the perception of relationships, and even the application of historical concepts.

## TO WHOM ADMINISTERED

Since the purpose of the test was that of survey or appraisal, it was administered to all regular 7B classes, comprising a total pupilage of 10,337. The test was given at the close of the term, at which time it is reasonable to expect that pupils had been taught practically all the material of the course of study for the grade.

\* EDITOR'S NOTE.—The Philadelphia Course of Study for grade seven covers the history of the United States "from the first permanent settlement in Virginia to the close of the War of 1812."

## RESULTS

### CITY MEDIAN—TOTAL SCORES

Table I shows the city median to be 35.7. There are 55 elements in the test. Thus the median seventh-grade pupil answered correctly 65 per cent. of the material of the test.

The semi-interquartile range, indicated by Q at the right of the table, is 7.1. Consequently, the middle half of pupils ranged in performance from 29 to 43 elements correct, or from 53 per cent. to 78 per cent. of perfect scores. Therefore, we may say that approximately one-fourth of the pupils at the lower end of the range answered correctly only one-half or less of the elements of the test, while the fourth of pupils at the upper end of the distribution answered correctly more than three-fourths of the elements of the test.

### CITY MEDIAN—SUB-TESTS

Table I also shows results for each sub-test. There are 10 elements in each sub-test except test IV. Thus the median scores may be translated into per cent. scores by removal of the decimal point. In sub-test IV the median score of 3.7, on a base of 5 questions, becomes a per cent. score of 74. It is interesting to note that the median score falls below 70 per cent. in only one of the 6 sub-tests. This is sub-test V relating to vocabulary. Investigation of pupil test papers has eliminated the possibility of misunderstanding of the test directions as a cause of the difficulty. This observation is supported by the fact that in sub-test III, arranged in similar form, the median score is 78 per cent. correct. The low median score of 4.6 in sub-test V may be due partly to the formal nature of some of the definitions included in the test. Nevertheless, the results indicate a need of greater definiteness in the teaching of historical concepts by associating these closely with significant keywords. Only thus can we develop in children an effective command of the vocabulary of history which is likely to aid recall, increase understanding of current literature, and amplify appreciation of the literature of history. It should be recognized that, in the introduction of formal history in grade 7, we have a strategic point for emphasizing the development of a definite vocabulary in the specialized field of history.

Vocabulary control should not be confused with formal definition. The point emphasized by the type of test here represented is the value of clear-cut, definitely labelled concepts in the study and appreciation of history.

### JUNIOR HIGH AND ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS

Separate summary scores are given for junior high and elementary schools. These indicate that achievement in the two types of school is similar. Differences in median results are so slight as to be insignificant.

Results for elementary schools are further analyzed by districts so that variations may be studied. In comparing district results, summarized in Table I, it is desirable to note the numbers of schools included in each district. These vary from 2 schools in District 4, to 11 schools in District 5. Thus the summary figures for these two districts are not exactly comparable.

### SCHOOL SCORES

Variation in school results may be studied not only on the basis of total scores, but also for the scores of each sub-test. For example, in District 3 there are 4 elementary schools. Two of these show a variation in medians of nearly 15 points. This is a wider range than that of the middle 50 per cent. of pupils in the entire city distribution. Thus the performance of one school is below the level of the 25 percentile of the city distribution, while the other has a median score nearly equal to that of the seventy-fifth percentile of the city distribution. It is suggested that principals study the results obtained in their respective schools. On a basis of such study,

standards may be determined that can be used as objective goals of subsequent attainment.

In the junior high schools there is a variation in total scores of 10.5 points. In the main, however, the results in the junior schools cluster closely about the median.

### DIAGNOSIS

The chief purpose of a survey test is that of appraisal. The application of the test here reported has served to establish city norms, and to suggest standards of attainment for subsequent terms. In addition to this important service the test lends itself to use as a diagnostic instrument. Careful examination of individual pupil papers will reveal types of error. These will suggest devices for remedial instruction, and methods to anticipate and prevent similar difficulties in pupils of subsequent seventh-grade history classes.

The regular use of the new type examination as a teaching device will contribute much to the success of instruction. Where these objective teacher-made tests give exact interpretation to the spirit and purpose of the course of study they will definitize requirements and make goals clear to pupils. Definite aims, clear-cut procedures, and persistent checking of results will improve the mastery of historical material, and increase the likelihood of its effective functioning in practical life situations.

## Table I.

### MEDIAN SCORES FOR CITY AND BY DISTRICTS

#### A. For Each Sub-Test Separately

#### B. For All Tests Combined

#### C. Semi-Interquartile Range of Total Scores

#### SUB-TESTS

No. of Test Elements	No. of Schools	SUB-TESTS						TOTAL Median	Q	
		I	II	III	IV	V	VI			
City Scores	74	7.0	7.8	7.8	3.7	4.6	8.0	35.7	7.1	
Junior High	17	6.8	7.7	7.7	3.7	4.5	8.1	35.2	7.0	
Total Elementary	57	7.2	7.8	8.0	3.8	4.7	8.0	36.2	7.1	
Elementary Schools:										
District No.	1	5	7.3	8.2	8.4	4.0	4.8	8.3	37.6	6.6
	2	4	6.2	7.1	7.7	3.4	3.8	7.4	32.4	7.2
	3	4	6.5	7.3	7.4	3.7	3.7	7.4	32.6	8.4
	4	2	5.4	7.5	6.3	3.8	4.4	7.7	33.4	6.5
	5	11	7.6	8.0	7.8	3.9	4.7	8.2	37.0	6.8
	6	6	6.9	7.5	7.1	3.7	4.7	7.9	34.5	6.1
	7	9	7.2	7.8	8.2	3.4	5.0	8.2	37.0	7.2
	8	3	8.9	9.1	9.8	4.2	6.7	8.8	43.0	7.7
	9	6	7.4	8.3	8.4	4.1	5.2	8.3	38.6	6.4
	10	7	8.3	8.4	9.0	3.8	5.4	8.0	40.1	6.3

## DIRECTIONS FOR EXAMINERS

## SURVEY TEST IN HISTORY

## Grade 7

I. *Date of Giving Test:* Thursday, June 7, 1928.

II. *By Whom Given:* Wherever possible, the test should be given by the principal of the school. This will insure uniformity of conditions.

III. *To Whom Given:* The test covers the entire course of Grade 7 and is to be given to pupils of Grade 7B only.

IV. *Preparatory Directions:* Each child should be supplied with two well-pointed pencils. The examiner should have a reserve supply of sharpened pencils for emergencies. Pupils' desks should be cleared.

V. *Examiner's Directions to the Class:* It is important that pupils take this test under normal classroom conditions. Directions to the class, to be given verbatim, are as follows:

"The purpose of this test is to see how well you have learned certain things in History. All 7B pupils in the city are taking this same test today, so do your best for the honor of your school. When papers are distributed, place them on your desk and do not examine them until all are ready to start." (Examiner supervises distribution of test papers.) "First, fill in the blanks at the top of the page. Write plainly. Do not waste any time."

"There are six parts to this test and each part has a set of directions telling what you are to do. Read the directions for each part carefully before you attempt to do that part of the test. Then do just what the directions tell you to do."

"In Test I you are to write the answer in the blank beside each question. In the other tests you will find sample questions already answered in order to make sure that you know how to proceed."

"You will be given ample time to do the test, so read each part carefully and try to get as many answers right as possible. Begin with Test I and continue right through all six tests. If you finish before the other pupils, look back over your work to be sure that your answers are correct. Now begin with Test I and go right through to the end of Test VI. Pencils up, READY-GO!"

The teacher will take the time of starting and allow pupils to work a maximum of thirty-five minutes. Papers of pupils who have finished may be collected before this time if pupils are not giving them any further consideration. All papers are to be collected at the end of thirty-five minutes.

VI. *Scoring:* Scoring is to be done by teachers under the direction of the principal. A scoring key is provided herewith. Answers are to be marked right or wrong and a score for each test recorded separately at the top of the test. Score for each part equals *number right*. The individual test scores should then be posted on the front page and totaled.

VII. *Class Tabulation:* Arrange the test papers in order of total scores from the highest to the lowest. Count the papers having scores of 53 to 55 and place the number opposite "53-55" under "No. of Pupils" on the Class Summary, Form RE 129. Then count the number having scores of 49 to 52 and enter the number opposite "49-52," etc. When the entire distribution has been recorded, enter the

total number of papers at the foot of the column and compute the median.

To record the distribution of pupil scores on each of the six sub-tests, follow procedure similar to that above indicated, recording under each sub-test the number of pupils who received each score from 10 to 0 (5 to 0 in Test IV).

VIII. *School Tabulation:* The principal will combine the class tabulations for the several 7B classes in the school, using Form RE 129 for the purpose.

This summary is to be forwarded to the DIVISION OF EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH on Friday, June 15, 1928. One copy should be retained by the principal.

## SCORING KEY

## TEST I

Question	Question
1. Jamestown	6. France, the French,
2. Religious	Napoleon
3. Quakers	7. 1776
4. Revolutionary War	8. France
5. 1789	9. Yorktown
	10. France

## TEST II

Question	Item	Question	Item
1.	3	6.	2
2.	3	7.	3
3.	1	8.	4
4.	2	9.	4
5.	4	10.	2

## TEST III

(6) William Penn	(7) General Burgoyne
(8) John Smith	(3) Roger Williams
(12) James Oglethorpe	(13) Thomas Jefferson
(5) Robert Morris	(2) Benjamin Franklin
(1) Lord Baltimore	(4) Lewis and Clark

## TEST IV

Question	Item
1.	2
2.	3
3.	4
4.	3
5.	1

## TEST V

(8) Emigration	(10) Ratification
(12) Religious Toleration	(14) Compromise
(13) Neutral	(15) Charter
(7) Tariff	(3) Parliament
(6) Confederation	(1) Conformity

## TEST VI

Question	Item	Question	Item
1.	2	6.	4
2.	1	7.	1
3.	4	8.	4
4.	3	9.	3
5.	2	10.	3

# Philadelphia Survey Test in History\*

## Grade 7

### TEST I

*Directions:* Complete the following statements by writing the correct word or words in the blanks.

1. The first permanent English settlement in America was at
2. The Puritans came to America chiefly because they desired freedom.
3. The people who founded Philadelphia were called
4. "Taxation without representation" was one of the causes of the
5. The government of the United States of America under the Constitution began in the year
6. In 1803 the United States purchased the Louisiana Territory from
7. The Declaration of Independence was adopted in the year
8. Quebec was settled chiefly by people from
9. The last battle of the Revolutionary War was at
10. Lafayette, who helped the colonists during the Revolutionary War, came from

### TEST II

*Directions:* In each of the following groups put a cross (X) in the block before the event which was of greatest importance in American History.

Sample  Washington once had his headquarters at Valley Forge.  
 In 1765, Great Britain passed the Stamp Act.  
 The Second Continental Congress adopted the Declaration of Independence.  
 The Hessian soldiers were surprised at Trenton.

1.  Tobacco was used as money in Virginia.  
 Many of the early settlers in Virginia spent their time and energy looking for gold mines.  
 In 1619, a Dutch sea captain brought the first slaves to Virginia.  
 The Indians killed some Jamestown settlers.
2.  During colonial times, the Virginians used tobacco as money.  
 Many colonists believed in witchcraft.  
 Massachusetts was the first colony to order that all children be taught to read.  
 The Puritans were opposed to the theatre.
3.  The Constitution of the United States was adopted.  
 Philadelphia was the capital of the United States at one time.  
 John Adams was a Vice-President of the United States.  
 The United States bank was chartered by Congress in 1791.
4.  Napoleon was educated in a French military school.  
 The territory of Louisiana was purchased in 1803.  
 Thomas Jefferson believed in simplicity.  
 There were just thirteen original colonies.
5.  The Liberty Bell was made in England.  
 During the Revolutionary War, Baron Steuben helped train the soldiers at Valley Forge.  
 The British occupied Philadelphia in 1777.  
 The Revolutionary War resulted in our independence.

\* **EDITOR'S NOTE.**—It has not been practicable to reprint the test in the size of type and with all the typographical details of the original.

6.  The Continental Army was defeated at Brandywine.  
 The British Army, under Burgoyne, was defeated at Saratoga.  
 General Washington attacked the British at Germantown.  
 General Howe spent the winter of 1777-78 in Philadelphia.

7. As a result of the French and Indian War.  
 many colonies were in debt because they equipped soldiers and paid for supplies.  
 Spain ceded Florida to England.  
 the colonists were knit much closer together and were better prepared to defend their rights in the Revolutionary War.  
 France ceded Cape Breton Island to England.

8. William Penn's plan of government for the colony of Pennsylvania provided that  
 only land owners might vote.  
 heavy penalties be laid on people for duelling, and attendance at the theatre.  
 prisoners should be taught a trade.  
 settlers should be allowed to worship God in their own way.

9. The colonists refused to obey the Stamp Act because  
 they could not afford to buy the stamps.  
 some stamps had the picture of King George on them.  
 they objected to taxation.  
 they objected to taxation without representation.

10. The Ordinance of 1787 provided  
 that not less than three nor more than five states be made out of the Northwest Territory.  
 that slavery be forever prohibited in this territory.  
 that the Indians be treated fairly.  
 that there be a territorial form of government until the population reached 60,000 in any of the proposed states.

### TEST III

*Directions:* Below is a list of men at the left, and a list of events at the right. In each parenthesis write the number of the event with which the man was most directly connected. Use no event more than once.

Sample ( 3 ) George Washington  
 ( 2 ) George Rogers Clark

1. English conquest of New Netherlands.  
 2. Conquest of the Northwest Territory.  
 3. First President of United States.

#### MEN

- (   ) William Penn
- (   ) John Smith
- (   ) James Oglethorpe
- (   ) Robert Morris
- (   ) Lord Baltimore
- (   ) General Burgoyne
- (   ) Roger Williams
- (   ) Thomas Jefferson
- (   ) Benjamin Franklin
- (   ) Lewis and Clark

#### EVENTS

- 1. Founding of Maryland.
- 2. French Alliance.
- 3. Settlement of Providence, R. I.
- 4. Exploration of Louisiana Territory.
- 5. Raising money for Revolutionary soldiers.
- 6. Founding of Pennsylvania.
- 7. Surrender at Saratoga.
- 8. Settlement of Jamestown.
- 9. Siege of Quebec.
- 10. Passage of Stamp Act.
- 11. Discovery of Delaware Bay.
- 12. Founding of Georgia.
- 13. Declaration of Independence.
- 14. Burning of Washington.

## TEST IV

**Directions:** In the following groups one event occurred before all the others. Put a cross (X) in the block before the one in each group that happened first.

**Sample**  Surrender at Saratoga.  
 Battle of Bunker Hill.  
 Surrender at Charleston.  
 Battle of Germantown.

1.  Settlement of Providence.  
 Settlement of Jamestown.  
 Settlement of Philadelphia.  
 Settlement of Charleston.

2.  English explored America.  
 French explored America.  
 Spanish explored America.  
 Dutch explored America.

3.  Battle of Brandywine.  
 Washington's winter camp at Valley Forge.  
 Surrender at Yorktown.  
 Boston Massacre.

4.  Inauguration of Washington as first President.  
 Adoption of Articles of Confederation.  
 Adoption of Declaration of Independence.  
 Purchase of Louisiana.

5.  Navigation Acts.  
 French Alliance.  
 Adoption of Constitution.  
 Establishment of first United States bank.

## TEST V

**Directions:** Below is a list of words at the left and a list of definitions at the right. In each parenthesis, write the number of the definition which explains the meaning of each word. Use no definition more than once.

**Sample** ( 3 ) Textiles  
 ( 2 ) Allies

(      ) Emigration.  
 (      ) Religious Toleration  
 (      ) Neutral  
 (      ) Tariff  
 (      ) Confederation  
 (      ) Ratification  
 (      ) Compromise  
 (      ) Charter  
 (      ) Parliament  
 (      ) Conformity

1. Settlement made by the Dutch.  
 2. Countries united by an agreement.  
 3. Woven goods.

1. Acting according to rule or custom.  
 2. Money received through taxation.  
 3. A law-making body.  
 4. A body of men who interpret the laws of the United States.  
 5. A kind of law.  
 6. A league of colonies or states.  
 7. A list of duties laid on imported goods.  
 8. Leaving one country or state to settle in another.  
 9. A promise made by colonists not to buy goods from England.  
 10. Formal approval of an official document by a state or nation.  
 11. The Senate and House of Representatives.  
 12. Permitting groups of people to worship God as they please.  
 13. Not taking sides in a dispute.  
 14. An agreement in which both parties give up part of their demands.  
 15. A document granting special rights or privileges.

## TEST VI

**Directions:** In each of the following exercises, a result is stated. Beneath each result are listed four possible causes, one of which is true. Put a cross (X) before the cause which makes a true statement.

**Sample:** The Quakers were opposed to war because

they lacked courage.  
 they believed it was wrong to fight.  
 wars cost too much money.  
 they did not have any great leaders.

1. The Pilgrims left England and went to Holland because
  - money was easily earned there.
  - they wished to worship God as they pleased.
  - they wished to engage in dairy farming.
  - Holland was a great manufacturing country.
2. James Oglethorpe established the Georgia colony in order that
  - life might be made easier for the persecuted and poverty-stricken people in England.
  - the densely populated cities of England might be relieved.
  - he might make a large profit on the money he invested.
  - he might establish a kingdom over which he would rule as king.
3. The First Virginia Assembly should be remembered because
  - of the men who composed it.
  - of the work it accomplished.
  - of the place it met.
  - it was the first legislative assembly to meet in America.
4. The early English colonies were confined to the Atlantic Coastal Plain by
  - storms at sea.
  - unfavorable winds.
  - the Appalachian barrier.
  - rich mineral deposits along the coast.
5. People left England and came to America during the early colonial times because
  - they thought it a safe place in which to live.
  - they wanted to secure freedom of religious worship.
  - they thought America was a very beautiful country.
  - they wanted to establish factories in America.
6. The New England Confederation and the Albany Congress were of greatest benefit to the colonies because
  - they brought together all the great men of the colonies.
  - they were proposed by Benjamin Franklin.
  - they became the governing body of the colonies.
  - they were the first attempts to form a union in America.
7. Our government was weak under the Articles of Confederation because
  - Congress did not have power to enforce its laws.
  - Congress had too few members.
  - Congress was afraid of foreign powers.
  - Congress had too small a navy.
8. Internal revenue taxes were passed by Congress in Washington's administration because they wanted
  - to stop the use of whiskey.
  - a tax which would be easy to collect.
  - a tax which would fall equally on all persons.
  - a tax which would raise money for the government.
9. Before the Revolution there was little growth in manufacturing and commerce because of
  - the lack of raw materials.
  - the inability of the people to do the work.
  - restrictions on colonial trade imposed by England.
  - the desire to remain an agricultural country.
10. The Constitutional Convention made a compromise about representation in Congress because
  - England had a similar method of representation.
  - it was feared that our country would become a monarchy.
  - large and small states had to be satisfied.
  - the Articles of Confederation had not proved satisfactory.

# The School Administrator Sets Standards in History

BY JOHN A. KINNEMAN, DEPARTMENT OF HISTORY, STATE NORMAL UNIVERSITY, NORMAL, ILL.

Every person, and that includes myself, will have a theory which will explain the reason for our citizens failing to be interested in what we may consider the important questions of the day. One person will summarize the situation by claiming that the attention is directed entirely in the stories of "human interests," as the newspaper man would classify them. Another answers that "we are not politically-minded." Why are we not politically-minded? Another person will exclaim that our interest centers in the one type of event because the newspapers feature the murders, robberies and divorces. They have not stopped to consider that these features prevail because of the demands made by an inquisitive public. Another person will put the whole situation on the basis of "interests" and will insist that if an individual has made the proper contacts with the important political questions he will manifest a desire to know more about them. But Mr. Average Citizen has not murdered, or robbed, or divorced. Why should he be interested in the news of the pathological? Still another person will maintain that the lack of interest in political questions of importance can be attributed to the highly unsatisfactory teaching which is done in history and the social sciences. To that answer I concur in part. All of us know that, because of the popular belief prevailing among school people in the past—a belief that still prevails in some quarters—anyone is qualified to teach those subjects passing as the social sciences. The athletic coach in our high schools has frequently been expected to be able to "pinch hit" with a class in civics. The manual arts, more frequently the manual training teacher, has been expected to qualify for teaching a history class. Slowly we are coming to see that history requires as much training in its way as mathematics and physics require in their way, and maybe more. Many history teachers of the past generation have known little except the material included in their poorly organized and provincially written textbooks, used by the members of the class. Moreover, they usually had access to no other books.

We are only commencing to set up comprehensive objectives for the teaching of this important subject. A narrow, flag worshiping patriotism and an intangible something called "citizenship" have sufficed as the reasons for teaching history. In addition, it can be established that teachers have not been expected, in fact, at times, have not been allowed, to pursue the truth. Men like John Hylan, former Mayor of New York, and William Hale Thompson, of Chicago, have not been willing to have the truth pursued. What is more, they have been sustained by the rank and file of voters. In addition they have been admirably supported, particularly since the World War, by a host of patriotic socie-

ties, councils and leagues which have extended their activities from the point of frowning upon innovations in the history books to linking them with the activities of the Moscow government.

While we have failed to set up objectives we have failed with equal effect to agree upon the body of material to be taught. The twentieth century "patriots" object to having Professors Muzzey, McLaughlin, Van Tyne and others attempt to put events and persons in their proper perspective, one to another. The "patriot" claims that he knows the truth as it is recorded on the pages of history—usually on the pages of an eighth grade text, inaccurately written a score of years or more ago. The historian claims that our minds must be open to the pursuit of the truth—to an amassing and a comprehension of new data. To those who say that the present method of teaching history, together with the material that is used, is at the root of our lack of interest in things political, I concur in part.

I concur only in part because I know a few excellent teachers who know their field of material, who know the teaching process, who are capable of exciting the interest of their pupils, and who, at the same time, are held to a position of dull conformity by the whip of the county examinations which are administered to pupils at the close of the year or at the end of the half year. While my educational philosophy often leads me off into the ethereal, I have not yet reached the point of wanting to abolish the county examination. While I am anxious to see the county unit retained I am even more anxious to see the examination improved.

For some years I have taught classes in the teaching of history. In the course of this work I have made proposals as to material and as to method which seemed quite reasonable to me. In the course of these proposals I have been met frequently with the answer that my proposals are sound, but "they can't be used in our county," since it is necessary to spend all of the available time assigned to history in doing those things which are most likely to be used in the tests given to the pupils in grades seven and eight. Having listened to these protests for several years and having suspected that these teachers, who were making the assertions about the county examinations, had some basis for their contentions, I decided to secure as many sets of questions from county superintendents as I could pry from them. With much perseverance I was able to secure about one hundred sets of questions. Most of them are from counties in Illinois, a few were sent from Iowa and Wisconsin, several sets from Washington and a number from Pennsylvania. While the number of sets of questions is not sufficiently large to warrant

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conclusions for the United States, I believe it is a safe conclusion that they are representative of the vast majority of the counties of the United States, wherever this type of examination is given. While some sets of questions could be found which would doubtless be eminently superior to those which I have, I am sure that there are others which would be inferior.

For those who raise the question as to whether the county examination is in need of improvement I can do no better than cite some of the questions which have been used for the seventh and eighth grades during the past four years, 1923-27. Note these from one county:

1924—Name in their order the Presidents of the United States who were elected for but a single term.

1925—Name in their order the Presidents who served two full terms.

1926—Name in their order the Presidents who served a complete single term and no more than a single term.

We may properly inquire as to what functional value in the process of education questions of this sort have, other than to emphasize the memorizing of facts, the value of which may be called into question.

The theme of war seems to have been a piece of material which has been much tested and we may properly infer, much taught. A set of ten questions for the eighth grade presents itself from a rich agricultural county of the Middle West. Of the ten questions, nine are given over to inquiries concerning "causes" and "results" of wars, the terms of the Armistice of 1918, the "military" importance of certain locations and other aspects of wars. One question makes inquiry about "money." While this test is supposed to cover the period since 1815, there is nothing in this set of questions to test the child's knowledge of the railroads and changes in our transportation system. There is no inquiry on the development of big business, on the much discussed question of immigration, nothing on possible participation in affairs of Europe, nothing on any of a dozen problems which are more vital than the memorization of facts about wars.

Your reply is that that is an illustration drawn from one county. Are there others? Taking another county in which ten questions were used to test the eighth graders, I can cite seven of the questions given over to the wars, four of which dealt with the Civil War. Or another county furnishes a set of nine questions, five of which are inquiries about wars. But some one will be reminded of the fact that these are not objective tests. An instance of an objective test can be found, of the completion and true-and-false types. Here is a sixty point test, exactly thirty points of which pertain to the theme of war. This again covers the eighth grade.

The emphasis upon war is not the only phase on which the tests might be scrutinized. To illustrate that the teacher is expected to teach history on the basis of administrations, the following selections will suffice, taken from questions used in different counties:

1. Name the first five Presidents of the United States and give one important event of each administration.
2. Name four important events that took place in the administration of Rutherford B. Hayes.
3. Name the first four Presidents. The last four.
4. Name the last five Presidents and give an important event in each administration.
5. Name the first five Presidents and a leading event in each administration.
6. Name the first five Presidents; the last five.
7. Name ten Presidents of the United States and give one event of national importance that occurred during the administration of each.

Other illustrations of this type could be given. Enough could be cited to demonstrate that there are many places in which the "administration" continues to be the unit of work. For those who want to justify the administration unit let us ask if it would not be desirable to teach all of our colonial history on the basis of decades for each or for all of the thirteen settlements rather than on the basis of government, industry, religion, social customs or some other classification that is likely to be found even in the worst of textbooks?

The glory which comes to the United States from its acquisition of territory seems to be a dominant note in the questions. Their wording, in some cases at least, seems to suggest that we should take pride in our land possessions. The methods of getting the territory seem unimportant. While there are a great number of questions on how and when the United States acquired Porto Rico, Louisiana, Philippines, Alaska, Havana and Florida, there has been a total absence of inquiry concerning Texas. Should boys and girls not know the truth of this episode? When, may I ask, does the historical mind become sufficiently mature to be able to withstand truth? When, I wonder, does our period of historical myth end? At ten, fourteen, or only at twenty-one, when all men are presumed to be given the right to vote on questions of policy?

Another element in the construction of the history test deserves our consideration. That is the period of time covered by the test. No one could claim that a satisfactory eighth grade test could consist of a series of questions beginning with Fort Sumter and ending with the Emancipation Proclamation. Another set beginning with the "Monitor" and the "Merrimac" and ending with the impeachment of Johnson could be cited to show the restricted field which the test might cover for a year's work.

There is no doubt that the history test frequently comes to be no more than a guessing contest. Illustrations on this point could be multiplied over and over. Questions inaccurately written and open to a double meaning, the tagging of things and individuals with certain indefinite titles, the requesting of a certain number of causes or results for a given historical event and other defects can be found in these much criticized history tests.

As the result of my examination of these questions I am sure that certain conclusions are warranted.

1. There has been little recent improvement in the history examination as administered in the counties.

While a few counties report the use of standard tests or of an objective test of their own making, the vast majority of the counties are relying on the "essay" examination filled with all kinds of defects and errors.

2. There is no agreement concerning the material to be covered by the test. Neither has there been any agreement on the objectives which history should meet, as evidenced in the questions.

3. No effort has been made to measure more than knowledge of facts, assuming that agreement could be reached on the minimum number of essential facts to be taught.

4. Too much emphasis has been placed upon slavery and the Civil War; too little on the migration to the West.

5. Too much emphasis has been placed upon military accomplishments; too little on the social, industrial and intellectual development of our country.

6. Too little emphasis has been placed upon changes and reasons for change. There is nothing in any of these tests on the question of how our ancestors lived in colonial times.

7. The testing is the result of the subjective judgment of one person who chances to write the questions. No attention has been paid to the experiences of the child. Nothing has been done to determine what he would like to know about American history.

8. Too much attention has been placed upon the remote. Little inquiry has been made concerning events that took place since the Civil War.

9. In all of these questions there is nothing which aims to test the pupil's knowledge of the American Indian or any appreciation of him and his civilization. Nothing which aims to test the pupil's knowledge or appreciation of the contributions made to America by the "cruel and heartless" Spaniards or by the French.

I have no fixed and positive views for a solution. This is a situation where pooled experience would serve well. Maybe the county examinations could be improved if they were written by a committee of teachers who are doing the actual teaching. It might be safe to say that if all of our teachers were well trained and experienced it might be possible to leave the "passing" of eight graders in their hands. Exception might be made in rare cases, and the county superintendent relied upon for a final decision. That plan will not be effected for a long time, not until a high order of professional training prevails. As a workable suggestion, someone should organize classes in our teacher-training institutions to interest county superintendents in all types of examinations. In addition to this, those of us who come into contact with teachers in service and with prospective teachers, need to keep working at ways of improving the examination. It seems to me that we should not be "sold" on any type of examination.

Before reaching any conclusion concerning the type of examination to be used we should be reasonably certain of the material that we want to use. To be sure of our material we need, first of all, to agree on the objectives of our instruction. While the research

worker is concerned in truth, the teacher in high school and in the grades has an added task in that history teaching must develop attitudes and judgments, skills in handling history material, a passion for the truth, a scrutiny of the printed page, an appreciation of historical lore. On the whole, the history teacher must have his goal set on an intangible "citizenship," the definition of which needs to be called up constantly.

After having marked out certain objectives we can turn to the selection of the material to be taught. If we can come to any reasonable agreement concerning our objectives I know that we shall have no trouble selecting the material. After the material is taught under a most approved fashion, it will be fairly easy to decide what shall be tested and the form that the test shall take.

In the present age it should become evident to all history and social science teachers that there is supreme need for using these subjects not as excuses for memorizing large quantities of unrelated facts which have no social value, but to use these subjects for the development of skills in meeting important social situations. If we can determine that a knowledge of these unrelated and unimportant facts is advantageous, then we should enlist in the cause of advancing it in the curriculum. If, however, we are convinced that after setting up objectives, subject to intelligent revision, that these questions, as now constituted, do not serve in meeting the social situation, then we should take all necessary steps to change the history standards. As American citizens we shall be interested in the unimportant as long as the history class and the accompanying test are based on the unimportant. The unimportant will prevail as long as we use history to present material which is unusable, as long as history is a dead record of dead men, as long as no effort is made to interest people in the historic, as long as we spend our time memorizing unrelated and unimportant facts.

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Thomas Ashby is contributing a series of articles on Archeological Research in Rome, 1908-1928, to the *Quarterly Review*. In the current number he summarizes what has been done. "Practically nothing of first-rate importance to record in the Forum, while a considerable advance has been made in the investigation of the Palestine....The excavation of the Circus Maximus has barely begun, but when it is completed...it will certainly be an important link between the Palatine and the Passeggiata Archeologica....In the Baths of Caracalla interesting investigations have been carried out....In the Imperial Fora a considerable amount of work has already been done, and more must follow as soon as the long-delayed solution of the traffic problem...from Via Cavour to the Piazza Venezia...is taken in hand....The whole of the northeast half of the Forum of Augustus, with the temple of Mars Ultor, has been cleared, and an extremely impressive ensemble has thus been created....The investigation of the Forum Transitorium has so far made but little progress, but important work has been done in the Forum of Trajan...." The subterranean basilica outside the Porta Maggiore, the tomb of the period of the Severi and a baptistery on the Via Salaria are also discussed.

# Test on World History from Earliest Times Through the Reformation

BY SUE HEFLEY, HOMER JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL, HOMER, LA.

**EDITOR'S NOTE.**—The following test is one of the few which have been prepared for Modern History. It has been tried out in class, but has not yet been published for general use. The typographical form, of course, is not as clear as would be that adopted for student use.

## I. True or false?

1. The most primitive tribes have some form of written language.
2. The agricultural stage of development followed the pastoral.
3. Writing is an older art than the making of pottery.
4. The neolithic age followed the paleolithic.
5. History dawned in Europe before it dawned in Africa.
6. The Persian Empire, at its height, included all Greece.
7. The Old Testament is a history of the Hebrew people.
8. The pyramids were a few miles of the city of Nineveh.
9. The Greeks introduced the alphabet into Phoenicia.
10. No other people in history were, as a whole, so artistic as the Athenians.
11. The Greeks were a closely united people, politically.
12. The Spartans were famed orators.
13. Solon lived before the time of Pericles.
14. Socrates was unpopular because he embraced the Christian faith.
15. The assembly was dearer to the Spartan than to the Athenian.
16. The plebs were the upper class in Rome.
17. The tribune was representative of the plebs.
18. The Etruscans lived south of Rome.
19. It was the sacred duty of the Vestal Virgin to marry.
20. The story of Romulus is a myth.
21. The story of Scipio is a myth.
22. The Colosseum was the scene of many gladiatorial fights.
23. The Roman practice of giving free grain to the poor was a wise measure.
24. A slave is lower in the social scale than is a serf.
25. The Roman typical of the early republic is more worthy of admiration than the Roman typical of the later Empire.
26. Rome followed the lead of Greece in cultural matters.
27. Labor strikes were common in Roman industry.
28. The type of soldier found in the Roman army before the Punic Wars was superior to the type of soldier found therein after the wars.
29. The Arians believed in the divinity of Christ.
30. The Romans were reduced to slavery by the German invaders.
31. Intermarriages between the Romans and Germans were common.
32. The Huns were a German tribe.
33. Tours was a victory for Christianity.
34. The teachings of Mohammed were a mixture of Jewish, Christian, and heathen teachings.
35. There are Mohammedans today.
36. Simony was the practice of marriage of the clergy.
37. The crusade movement prolonged the period of feudalism.
38. Europe was richer, intellectually, because of the Crusades.
39. The growth of cities was an encouragement to feudalism.
40. The French won the 100 Years' War.
41. Carolingians were ruling in France during the Hundred Years' War.
42. The War of the Roses was a war between Scotland and England.
43. Wycliff was an English reformer.
44. Joan of Arc was put to death by the Burgundians.
45. Philip IV was victorious in his struggle with Boniface VIII.
46. The English had to struggle harder to obtain their representative assembly than did the French.
47. The incident of the Great Schism strengthened the hold of the Church upon the masses.
48. Martin Luther was burned at the stake.
49. Scientific knowledge was more widespread in the Middle Ages than in the period following the Renaissance.
50. Minnesingers were wandering minstrels of Germany.
51. Florentines were among the most vigorous of Italians.
52. Raphael painted "Mona Lisa."
53. Da Vinci painted "The Last Supper."
54. Dante was an Italian writer.
55. Vasco Da Gama was successful in rounding the southern tip of Africa.
56. Copernicus held that the sun was the center of the earth's rotations.
57. German princes encouraged the payment of taxes into the Papal treasury.
58. The Ninety-five Theses advocated indulgences.
59. Frederic the Wise was a friend of Luther's.
60. The Twelve Articles were favorably received by the nobles.
61. The religious peace of Augsburg recognized three sects of Christians.
62. Henry IV turned Catholic upon gaining the throne of France.
63. Protestantism took root in the northern section of the Spanish Netherlands.
64. Christian IV was Protestant in his sympathies.
65. Philip of Spain was disappointed in his faith that the Catholics of England would come to his aid.
66. The Armada was defeated.
67. At the close of the Thirty Years' War, Germany entered into a period of unprecedented prosperity.

## II. Which of the two items associated together in the following list came first in the order of time? (On the answer sheet indicate by a or b.)

1. a. Renaissance, b. Reformation.
2. a. Charlemagne, b. Mohammed.
3. a. Actium, b. Zama.
4. a. First Triumvirate, b. Roman Empire formed.
5. a. Nebuchadnezzar, b. Hammurabi.
6. a. Persian War, b. Peloponnesian War.
7. a. Golden Age, b. Rule of the Thirty.
8. a. Hellenistic Age, b. Hellenic Age.
9. a. Galileo, b. Roger Bacon.
10. a. War of the Roses, b. Hundred Years' War.
11. a. Trojan War, b. Persian Wars with Greece.
12. a. Theban supremacy in Greece, b. Spartan supremacy in Greece.
13. a. Pericles, b. Themistocles.
14. a. Fall of Western Roman Empire, b. Fall of Eastern Roman Empire.
15. a. Discovery of Rosetta Stone, b. Opening of Tutankhamen's Tomb.
16. a. Founding of Alexandria, Egypt; b. Founding of Byzantium.
17. a. Peace of Westphalia, b. Peace of Augsburg.
18. a. First Olympic games in ancient Greece, b. Mythical founding of Rome.
19. a. Plantagenets, b. Norman kings.
20. a. Conquest of Italy by Rome, b. Punic Wars.
21. a. The Gracchi, b. Pompey.
22. a. First Triumvirate, b. Cæsar crossed the Rubicon, making a momentous decision.

23. a. Events pictured in the Iliad, b. Events pictured in the Odyssey.
24. a. Fall of Rome, b. Dark Ages.
25. a. Invasion of Roman Empire by Germans, b. Invasion of Europe by Mohammedans.
26. a. Roman Empire founded, b. The Birth of Christ.
27. a. Charlemagne, b. Clovis.
28. a. The Hegira, b. Tours.
29. a. Counter-Reformation, b. Reformation.
30. a. Babylonian Captivity, b. Great Schism.
31. a. Magna Charta, b. Parliament first called.
32. a. Columbus, b. Marco Polo.
33. a. Edict of Nantes, b. Massacre of St. Bartholomew's Day.
34. a. Richard the Lion-Hearted, b. William the Conqueror.
35. a. Justinian, b. The German invasion of western Europe.

III. Indicate on your answer sheet, by letter, the item which best completes each of the following statements:

1. The lord's own personal property, under feudalism, was known as the (a) keep, (b) demesne, (c) manor, (d) fief.
2. Athenians favored (a) oligarchy, (b) monarchy, (c) aristocracy, (d) democracy.
3. The finest medieval cathedrals were built in the style known as (a) Gothic, (b) Byzantine, (c) Moorish, (d) Romanesque.
4. Loyola devoted his life to the cause of (a) Protestantism, (b) Catholicism, (c) Lutheranism, (d) Calvinism.
5. The Mohammedans called their sacred book the (a) Koran, (b) Kaaba, (c) Hegira, (d) Mecca.
6. For the highest level of culture in history we are indebted to (a) Spartans, (b) Persians, (c) Babylonians, (d) Athenians.
7. Authorities are agreed that the world's most perfect piece of architecture is the (a) Propylea, (b) Stadium, (c) Colosseum, (d) Parthenon.
8. One of the most prominent of Greek colony cities was (a) Tyre, (b) Byzantium, (c) Carthage, (d) Thebes.
9. As far as we know, the first inhabitants of the Greek peninsula were the (a) Ionians, (b) Dorians, (c) Milesians, (d) Achaeans.
10. The Greeks believed that their gods were (a) morally perfect beings, (b) subject to the death of humans, (c) pleased with human sacrifice, (d) subject to human moral weaknesses.
11. The Phoenicians were (a) great empire-builders, (b) great scholars, (c) religious leaders of the Near East, (d) great traders.
12. The form of patriotism that appealed to the Greek was (a) national, (b) city, (c) state, (d) international.
13. As Alexander became more powerful he (a) became more vain and overbearing, (b) became less ambitious, (c) turned against warfare, (d) lost his great personal vanity.
14. The cultured language of the Middle Ages was (a) the Latin, (b) the Greek, (c) the French, (d) the German dialects.
15. Socrates (a) believed in many gods, (b) embraced Christianity, (c) believed in no higher power than man, (d) believed in one supreme being.
16. Alexander's empire was (a) divided among his generals, (b) inherited by his sons, (c) conquered immediately by the Turks, (d) resolved into its original parts.
17. As an illustration of the often-repeated struggle between the East and the West, we have (a) the Peloponnesian War, (b) the Thirty Years' War, (c) the Greco-Persian War, (d) the Hundred Years' War.
18. Rome ruled her conquered provinces in such a fashion that (a) they were constantly rebellious and dissatisfied, (b) they were fairly content under Roman rule, (c) a standing army was a necessity in each province, (d) they were allowed their freedom after a certain number of years.

19. Publicans were (a) tax-gatherers for Rome, (b) hired Roman soldiers, (c) professional fighters to furnish a Roman holiday, (d) governors sent to each province.
20. The city rabble was an indication of (a) industrial prosperity in Rome, (b) desirable social conditions in Rome, (c) popular unrest because of governmental evils, (d) poor industrial organization in Roman world.
21. The world's finest painting dates from the (a) Golden Age in Greece, (b) Renaissance, (c) Counter-Reformation, (d) Augustan period in Rome.
22. Rome (a) attempted to crush any Greek culture with which she came in contact, (b) was herself influenced by Greek culture, (c) tried to force Asiatic civilization upon the Greeks, (d) was tolerant of no other civilization than her own.
23. The early attitude of Roman government toward Christian faith was (a) antagonistic, (b) tolerant, (c) indifferent, (d) encouraging to that faith.
24. The rabble was composed of (a) pleasure-seeking nobles, (b) discontented slaves, (c) unemployed middle class, (d) office-seeking politicians.
25. The Treaty of Verdun provided (a) that Charlemagne's empire should go to his son, (b) that Charlemagne's empire be formed into modern France, (c) that Charlemagne's empire be divided among his three sons, (d) that Charlemagne's empire be divided among his three grandsons.
26. The Council of Trent was a means of (a) reconciling Catholics and Protestants, (b) was an expression of Protestant views, (c) was part of the Catholic effort to check the Reformation, (d) was the council which healed the Great Schism.
27. By the Treaty of Westphalia the princes of Germany were (a) forced to accept Protestantism, (b) forced back into the Catholic Church, (c) allowed choice of 3 faiths, (d) allowed choice of 2 faiths.
28. Under feudalism, the favored class was (a) the nobles, (b) the kings, (c) the serfs, (d) the clergy.
29. Humanists were interested in (a) reforming the church, (b) reviving interest in Greek and Latin culture, (c) checking the movement away from the church, (d) fighting renewed interest in classic civilization.

IV. Identify with one of the following periods, each of the items listed below:

#### THE PERIODS

A. Prehistory. B. Egyptian history. C. Assyrian history. D. Babylonian history. E. Hebrew history. F. Persian history. G. Greek history. H. Roman history. I. Europe before the 15th century. J. Renaissance. K. Reformation and Counter-Reformation.

1. Martin Luther.	23. Cæsar.
2. Nebuchadnezzar.	24. Stonehenge.
3. Richelieu.	25. Epaminondas.
4. Tours.	26. Ordeals.
5. Aristotle.	27. Hannibal.
6. Joan of Arc.	28. Rameses.
7. The Triumvirates.	29. Punic Wars.
8. The Crusades.	30. Calvin.
9. Zama.	31. Rule of the Thirty.
10. Socrates.	32. Octavias.
11. Cyrus.	33. Charlemagne.
12. Hastings.	34. Tutankhamen.
13. Chivalry at its height.	35. Alexander.
14. Abraham.	36. Michaelangelo.
15. Clovis.	37. Achilles.
16. Nero.	38. Estates General established.
17. Holy Roman Empire formed.	39. Hammurabi.
18. Scipio.	40. Feudalism.
19. Magna Charta.	41. Phidias.
20. Olympic games.	42. Appian Way.
21. Birth of Christ.	43. Peace of God.
22. Cuneiform writing.	44. Thirty Years' War.

45. Domestication of plants.  
 46. Treaty of Westphalia.  
 47. St. Boniface.  
 48. Loyola.  
 49. Oracles.  
 50. Hellenic Age.  
 51. Periclean Age.  
 52. Solomon.  
 53. Carolingians.

54. Galileo.  
 55. Dante.  
 56. Peace of Augsburg.  
 57. Gustavus Adolphus.  
 58. Hundred Years' War.  
 59. Peloponnesian War.  
 60. Marius.  
 61. Use of fire mastered.

V. In the following exercise, match the cause with the effect: (On the answer sheet indicate by letter.)

1. Slavery too prevalent.  
 2. Rivalry between Yorks and Lancastrians.  
 3. Rivalry between Athens and Sparta.  
 4. Introduction of gunpowder.  
 5. Desire to be free from the dominion of the medieval church.  
 6. Great havoc wrought by Thirty Years' War.  
 7. Alexander's conquest of Asia.  
 8. Conquest of Holy Land by Turks.  
 9. Claims of England to French throne.  
 10. Claims of Spain to English throne.  
 11. Effort to provide commercial protection for North European cities.  
 12. Desire to live aloof from the medieval world.  
 13. Effort to revive Roman Empire of the West.  
 14. Constant bickering between Popes and Emperors.  
 15. Fall of Constantinople to Turks.  
 16. Rivalry between Rome and Carthage.  
 17. Violation of a Greek home.  
 18. Finding of Rosetta Stone.  
 19. Victory of Clovis in battle.

a. Crusades.  
 b. Diffusion of Greek culture.  
 c. Hundred Years' War.  
 d. The Reformation.  
 e. Hanseatic League.  
 f. Trojan War.  
 g. Punic Wars.  
 h. Germany's progress retarded.  
 i. Holy Roman Empire formed.  
 j. Hugo Grotius's greatest work.  
 k. Fall of Rome.  
 l. War of the Roses.  
 m. Armada expedition.  
 n. Feudalism rendered an ineffectual system.  
 o. Migration of Greek scholars.  
 p. Monastic system.  
 q. Deciphering of hieroglyphics.  
 r. Adoption of Christianity by Franks.  
 s. Peloponnesian War.

VI. Match the items in the second column with those in the first.

1. Hammurabi.  
 2. Neptune.  
 3. Bacon.  
 4. Perseus.  
 5. Thotmes.  
 6. Themistocles.  
 7. Leonidas.  
 8. Epicurus.  
 9. Demosthenes.  
 10. Aristotle.  
 11. Praxiteles.  
 12. Abraham.  
 13. Herodotus.

a. Sculptor of Hermes.  
 b. Greek philosopher, whose teachings have been often identified with the policy "eat, drink, and be merry."  
 c. Said to be the greatest figure in the intellectual history of the world.  
 d. Greatest Greek orator.  
 e. Famous giver of laws.  
 f. Father of History.  
 g. Hero of Salamis.  
 h. Mythical Greek hero.  
 i. God of the Seas.  
 j. Hero of Thermopylae.  
 m. Founder of Hebrew nation.  
 n. Egyptian pharaoh.  
 o. Called first modern man.

VII. In similar fashion, match the following:

1. Romulus.  
 2. Scipio.  
 3. Augustus.  
 4. Marius.  
 5. Attila.  
 6. Benedict.  
 7. Henry IV.  
 8. Wycliff.  
 9. John.  
 10. Richelieu.  
 11. Gustavus Adolphus.  
 12. Vergil.  
 13. Diocletian.

a. Delayed German invasions of Rome.  
 b. Humiliated at Canossa.  
 c. Whose followers were called "Lollards."  
 d. Roman writer.  
 e. Hero of Punic Wars.  
 f. Mythical founder of Rome.  
 g. Forced to grant Magna Charta.  
 h. First Roman Emperor.  
 i. Scourge of God.  
 j. Founder of a monastic order.  
 k. Champion of Protestantism in Thirty Years' War.  
 l. Said to be the greatest figure in French history between Charlemagne and Napoleon.  
 m. Said to be the strongest man to wear the purple of Rome.

VIII. Map work.

1. Outline the Persian Empire at its height.  
 2. Outline Alexander's Empire.  
 3. Outline the Roman at its height.  
 4. Outline Islam at its height.  
 5. Outline the Holy Roman Empire.  
 6. Indicate scene of the Crusades.  
 7. Indicate original home of the Germans.  
 8. Indicate scene of the Thirty Years' War (fighting area).

IX. Match the date with the proper item:

1. 490 B. C.  
 2. 323 B. C.  
 3. 776 B. C.  
 4. 753 B. C.  
 5. 264 B. C.  
 6. 146 B. C.  
 7. 44 B. C.  
 8. 31 B. C.  
 9. 476 A. D.  
 10. 732 A. D.  
 11. 1215.  
 12. 1302.  
 13. 800.  
 14. 1453.  
 15. 1648.  
 16. 12th and 13th centuries.  
 17. 15th and 16th centuries.  
 18. 16th and 17th centuries.  
 19. 27 B. C.

a. Cæsar's death.  
 b. Death of Alexander.  
 c. Mythical founding of Rome.  
 d. Roman Empire founded.  
 e. Magna Charta.  
 f. Charlemagne's coronation.  
 g. End of Hundred Years' War.  
 h. First Punic War.  
 i. First Greek Olympiad.  
 j. Roman Empire falls to Germans.  
 k. End of Thirty Years' War.  
 l. Estates General called.  
 m. Tours.  
 n. Reformation.  
 o. Actium.  
 p. Crusades.  
 q. Fall of Carthage.  
 r. Renaissance.  
 s. Persian War.

# Vocabulary Versus Content in Junior High School Social Studies\*

BY TYLER KEPNER, DIRECTOR OF SOCIAL STUDIES, BROOKLINE, MASS.

## DESIRE FOR IMPROVEMENT

There is ample evidence that the typical teacher is constantly seeking in one way or another to improve her teaching technique. To put it another way, the typical teacher of this teaching era is sincerely seeking at the cost of considerable time and labor to do her job better day by day. And it is probably true that the junior high school teacher leads all the rest in this desire for improvement as measured by actual and constant striving for better teaching. It is also probably true that the science of education has on the whole made her struggle somewhat more difficult than is necessary from a practical point of view. When, however, the teacher manages to get her equilibrium, when she is able to rise above the smoke of conflicting theories and philosophies, when in short she is able to see herself understandingly in relation to her classroom privileges and obligations, she probably concludes that her duty is not only "to teach children" nor yet "to teach subjects," but to teach children subjects. In other words, real progress in one's teaching means progress through the content of the subject one is teaching.

Improvement of one's teaching has meant, therefore, keeping abreast of the latest methods of teaching technique. Whether the latest model is always the best model is another matter. What does the alert teacher find as she follows latest professional thought? She finds upon close study that "latest methods," like fashions, seem to run in cycles, and like fashions sooner or later go out of style.

Glancing back over the recent years, and without an attempt at arranging the methods in order of origin, what have been some of the fashions? At one time, to cite methods in the field of the social studies, the latest has been the topical method; at another time the fanaticism has been the project method; at still another time the panacea for our educational ills has been the problem method. Again, to turn a page in the professional book, the laboratory, or source-study, method has occupied, or has tried to occupy, the center of the stage. Then another day has brought forth the socialization of method, and still another day has emphasized visualization, and so on through the whole gamut of educational methods, devices and plans.

Has progress been made? Has improvement in teaching resulted as we turn rapidly and eagerly from one fashion to another? One would have to be extremely pessimistic, indeed, not to admit that we are better off today than we were even a decade ago, or not to concede that, all things considered, there are on the whole better equipped teachers today and more of them than we have ever had. Despite the inde-

fensible practice of educational theorists in using confused and confusing jargon, in calling one thing by a half dozen different names for the sake of being "original," no one will deny that each new fashion, as it crosses the educational stage, has for its purpose the welfare of the children and the advancement of content. Of course, it must be conceded also that our progress has been made at the cost of tremendous waste and much misguided enthusiasm. It is the purpose of this paper to submit that, as each school of thought has advanced its special program, it has done little or nothing to overcome a *basic difficulty in the presentation of content*. An educational campaign of silence has been carried on with respect to it. That it does not lend itself to the spectacular in education may account for the little attention that has been directed to it. And yet it is a difficulty which must by its very nature undermine the success of our entire teaching program whatever method or combination of methods may be practiced. The removal of the difficulty, or at least its reduction, comes closer to the probable achievement of the classroom teacher than any of the latest fashions heretofore mentioned, and is infinitely more a matter of concern to her, if for no other reason than that those higher up have practically completely ignored it. To put it briefly, in the matter of this basic difficulty—vocabulary—the tendency has been to "pass the buck" to the classroom teacher. And because so little attention has been paid to its real significance, most of us are unaware of its insidious effects.

Some may recall a cartoon appearing in one of our textbooks in history some ten years ago. The cartoon depicted a soldier on a mule. The caption was "On a Furlough." To at least one boy furlough meant mule. Humorous as some misconceptions may be, this particular one raises an interesting question as to how many mules daily pass through our classrooms with less reason and more unsuspectingly than the case just cited. After describing the study underlying this paper, an attempt will be made to set forth something of the extent to which vocabulary difficulties in the junior high school are militating mightily against our efforts to bring to our pupils, or to lead our pupils to, an understanding knowledge and appreciation of the content in the courses of study.

## DESCRIPTION OF STUDY

During the months from January to June, inclusive, 1928, seventeen teachers of the social studies in seven schools were asked to co-operate in securing the data here used. The schools were in one residential community, with a total enrollment in the social studies of approximately 1,200 pupils in

\* Paper read at Connecticut State Teachers' Association, New Haven, October 26, 1928.

grades VII, VIII and IX. Special forms for reporting vocabulary difficulties were prepared and the co-operating teachers were asked to record a word or phrase at the time the difficulty arose. The main instruction called for the recording of all words which in the course of daily teaching procedure it was evident that *approximately 50 per cent.* of the class did not comprehend. Reports were turned in at monthly intervals. At the close of the period covered by this study all the words, omitting duplications, were alphabetically arranged. A total of slightly more than seven hundred words was thus secured—words, it is understood, reported as not comprehended by 50 per cent. of the class group in grades VII, VIII and IX. Inasmuch as we are teaching not 50 per cent. of our pupils but 100 per cent. of them, it is obvious that there must have been many more words that smaller parts of the class did not comprehend. This fact should be kept in mind when the data are analyzed and interpreted.

The natural questions to arise at this point were: how many words are there in the vocabulary of a normal junior high school pupil, and how many of the seven hundred words should be in the vocabulary of a normal junior high school pupil? The answer to the first question is given by Thorndike. After critically analyzing various estimates previously made by others, Thorndike estimated in 1924 that the normal vocabulary for a ninth grade pupil (normally fourteen years of age) is "from 10,000 to 11,500 words."<sup>1</sup> Thorndike's test of the knowledge of a word is "to be able to define it passably, or at least to recognize a definition of it among three or four wrong definitions." The answer to the second question, how many of the seven hundred words should be in the vocabulary of a normal junior high school pupil? was arrived at by checking all the words against Thorndike's 10,000 words as contained in the revised edition of his *Teacher's Word Book*. To those unfamiliar with this useful list, it is necessary to explain that the words are arranged alphabetically with the relative position of each word in the list indicated. Thus the word *territory*, for example, is listed as *territory 3a*, which means that the word *territory* is found in the third thousand and somewhere in the first half of the third thousand in importance.<sup>2</sup> Whatever may be the shortcomings of this list, it is the only measuring stick we have, and it is in the Thorndike list that we must find our answer to the second question. It was found that 48 per cent. of the seven hundred words were beyond a 10,000 word vocabulary of at least 50 per cent. of some 1,200 pupils in the junior high school grades. That is to say, that one out of two words reported are not words found in what is estimated to be the vocabulary of a ninth-grade pupil.

#### INTERPRETATIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

It would be interesting and useful to know what pupils do when difficulty of vocabulary complicates, if not inhibits, the learning process. One investigator found that pupils in the fifth grade "more often

omit what they do not understand, whereas the seventh-grade children more often repeat verbatim the words of the author."<sup>3</sup> The latter practice is the opium of the classroom consumed in quantities beyond measurement and apparently with pleasing effects for too many teachers. Another investigator puts the same thing more forcibly by insisting that "a correct answer is no proof that the child knows what he has answered," and submits the following in partial substantiation for grades VII, VIII and IX:

- 44% of the pupils tested could name two explorers, but could not tell what an explorer is.
- 38% could name a signer of the Declaration of Independence, but could not give a reasonably correct idea of the document.
- 30% could name two nations, but could not state with reasonable correctness what a nation is.
- 27% knew when the Constitution was adopted, but could not tell what it was.<sup>4</sup>

It is probably true that in the junior high school grades a tendency to bluff finds its foundation in part at least in vocabulary difficulties, especially in those cases where the art of verbatim recitation is not cultivated. Before turning to the interpretation of the results furnished by this study, it is pertinent to note the conclusion of one investigator who found that "pupils who did well in their classes had a good vocabulary; and that those with a good vocabulary ranked high in class work."<sup>5</sup> Conversely, it would seem to follow that lack of vocabulary comprehension makes for a lower degree of achievement in content. In other words, when success in content is measured, command of vocabulary is being measured. No one, therefore, will dispute the basic nature of vocabulary in the learning process.

Turning to an analysis of the seven hundred words in this study, the following tabulation classifies the nature of the difficulties:

Nature of Words and Phrases	Percentage
Common Words	53
Language of the Social Studies	47

By the language of the social studies is meant the words and phraseologies—technical and non-technical—that writers of the social studies are in the habit of using. For example (all words given by way of example in this paper are words found in the list reported), *belligerent, commercial, conference, epoch, expenditures, intervention, retaliation, smuggle, social, subsidies, unanimously, line of least resistance*, etc. Words of the above type can scarcely be considered peculiar to the social studies even though they appear rather frequently in the materials of the social studies. Such words are more or less common to the reading subjects and may be called non-technical. In the language of the social studies is found another group of words that may be termed technical—that is, words that are more or less peculiarly the word-vehicles of the social studies. In this group are found such words as *amnesty, capitalist, colonization, confederation, corporation, covenant, diplomat, empire, franchise, imperialism, initiative, judicial, subtropical, latitude*,

*mandate, ministry, partisan, plutocracy, protectorate, secession, closed shop, foreign policy, protective tariff, sympathetic strike, etc.*

Referring to the tabulation we find that 47 per cent. of the difficulties reported are the words or the language of the social studies, both technical and non-technical. Practically, therefore, one out of two words reported is of this type. In other words, the language of the social studies is offering no more difficulty than the so-called common words. Further tabulation of the language of the social studies gives the following subdivisions:

	Percentage
Non-technical Words	24
Technical Words	23

Here, it is seen, one out of every four words reported and classified as the language of the social studies is a technical word. Roughly, therefore, one-fourth of the seven hundred words and phrases are difficulties of the technical variety.

Meltzer, testing with most favorable technique, found similar difficulties with respect to the technical words of the social studies. His study indicated the following average number of correct ideas for thirty-one social concepts: grade VII, 58 per cent.; grade VIII, 74 per cent.<sup>6</sup>; grade IX, 58 per cent. Certain advantages of some of the pupils tested in grade VIII explain the high average for that grade. For the three concepts in the list which Meltzer regarded as of greatest social significance, the results for grades VII, VIII and IX showed that the following percentages of pupils were confused, had misconceptions or no understanding whatever:<sup>7</sup>

Concept	Percentage
Democracy	28
Interdependent World	58
Industrial Revolution	63

Recalling that a ninth-grade pupil should have, according to Thorndike, a vocabulary of 10,000 words at least, we turn next to a tabulation to determine how many of the seven hundred words are beyond a vocabulary of 10,000 words and how they are distributed according to the classification here adopted. The following percentages represent words not found in Thorndike's list of ten thousand words:

	Percentage
Common Words	21
Language of the Social Studies	27

Thus, 48 per cent., or one out of every two words of the total of seven hundred words, is found to be beyond a ten-thousand word vocabulary. Of the language of the social studies, the following subdivisions represent the percentages of words not found in Thorndike's list:

	Percentage
Non-technical Words	13
Technical Words	14

Roughly, one out of every seven words of the seven hundred reported is a technical word not found in Thorndike's list.

The following tables summarize the data of this study:

Nature of Word or Phrase	Per Cent. of 700 Words	Per Cent. Not in 10,000 Word List
Common Words	53	21
Language of Social Studies	47	27
Total	100	48

This table shows that: (1) for every word difficulty reported in the language of the social studies, there is a common word difficulty; (2) one-half of the words reported are not in Thorndike's word list.

Language of Social Studies Subdivided Into	Per Cent. of 700 Words	Per Cent. Not in 10,000 Word List
Non-technical Words	24	13
Technical Words	23	14
Total	47	27

With respect to the language of the social studies, this table shows that: (1) for every word difficulty reported as a technical word there is a non-technical difficulty; (2) one-fourth of the words in the language of the social studies are not in Thorndike's list of ten thousand words.

Keeping in mind that this study did not cover a full year, that co-operating teachers did not constantly keep in mind over the entire period the urgency of reporting all difficulties, that the study was made in a residential community having cultural advantages above the average, and that the time allotment for English instruction is far above the average, the writer estimates that for normal and average classroom situations we are demanding in the junior high school social studies a vocabulary of from two thousand to three thousand words, with the latter figure probably more accurate, which are beyond the comprehension of at least 50 per cent. of our pupils.

Two general conclusions seem warranted from the data gathered: (1) instruction in the content of the social studies in the junior high school is being seriously handicapped by the use of a vocabulary beyond the comprehension of a ninth-grade pupil of normal vocabulary; (2) slightly more than one-half of the vocabulary difficulties represent language unessential to the social studies. Clearly the contest is on between the content of the social studies and the language used to convey that content. Vocabulary is the master rather than the servant of content. As every teacher knows, the textbook is the chief source of content and must, therefore, plead guilty to the charge of defeating its own ends. Time does not permit establishing the case against the textbook. Let Miss Ayer, who has made out a case against the textbook, be quoted briefly: "The content of many of the widely used fifth-grade histories is sufficiently difficult for high school use."<sup>8</sup>

#### REMEDIES

The purpose of this paper has been to center attention upon the difficulties offered by vocabulary in the teaching of the social studies. But little time remains to suggest in the briefest possible way what we, as teachers, can do about the matter. For the

time being it is largely a matter for the classroom teacher. Practically all others have avoided the challenge. It is true that in the past year or two textbooks have been appearing in the junior high school social studies, which state in the preface that special attention has been given to the problem of vocabulary. If this has been done in any scientific manner, then an important first step has been taken and teachers should be the first to give credit to the textbook makers.

Since every teacher is confronted with vocabulary difficulties, her first step should be to get acquainted with significant studies that have been made in order that she may properly realize the extent of the difficulties involved. The social studies teacher should read Meltzer, *Children's Social Concepts*; Ayer, *Some Difficulties in Elementary School History*; Schwesinger, *The Social-Ethical Significance of Vocabulary*,<sup>9</sup> and Scott and Myers, "Children's Empty and Erroneous Concepts of the Commonplace."<sup>10</sup>

Let the teacher now determine to keep constantly in mind the basic nature of vocabulary. The determination in practice will lead to two activities daily carried out: (1) jot down on a form especially reserved for the purpose those words that it is apparent are blocking the progress of a fair number of the pupils in the content you are teaching, as evidenced by pupil reactions; (2) exercise vigilance that the form is not accepted for the spirit, that words are not used as mystic symbols. The latter is by far the more difficult assignment for a teacher. The teacher is now faced with the problem of determining the relative importance of the words she thus records preparatory to taking the teaching step. In addition she probably is wondering whether she should turn her social studies class into a vocabulary exercise or whether she should turn the list over to the teacher of English. The data of this study does not warrant the making of wholesale charges against the teacher of English. The fact is that demands on pupils' vocabularies have been unreasonable. This, however, is not to say that pupils should not be expected to advance in vocabulary as progress in a subject is made. If an honest, workable system of co-operation exists between the departments of English and the social studies, mutually benefiting arrangements can be made, at least for the words not the language of the social studies. In general, however, probably the best place to care for the vocabulary difficulties of the social studies is in the social studies classes.

Whatever disposition is made of the matter, some teacher will have to determine the relative importance of the words recorded as offering hindrances and will have to know whether the words should be in the vocabulary of a pupil of the grade in question. It is at this point that every teacher will recognize the need for having at hand Thorndike's *Teacher's Word Book*. Not even expert teachers have adequate or accurate notions of the relative importance of words in a vocabulary of ten thousand words, let us say, and

the proof lies in trying to arrange words in what one believes to be the order of importance within any thousand and then check them against the Thorndike list. Finally, what one should do with each of the words recorded, as suggested above, depends, according to Thorndike, partly on its special importance for the subject and partly on its general importance then and later for the pupils concerned.

For the teacher who would anticipate difficulties or who is desirous of knowing what are some of the problems facing her at the beginning of the year in this connection, testing would undoubtedly prove helpful. Both vocabulary tests and reading tests would shed light upon troubles ahead in the social studies for both pupil and teacher. Of both types of tests there are many available. A special type of vocabulary test, however, is the Pressey Technical Vocabulary Lists in American History and Geography.<sup>11</sup> In these lists differentiation in importance is made by classifying in three general groups. These tests may serve as self-tests. Whatever we do, let us determine to keep a vigilant eye and ear for the daily procession of mules across our classrooms.

<sup>1</sup> "The Vocabularies of School Pupils," New York Society Contributions to Education, 76.

<sup>2</sup> The derivation of the list is described in *Teachers College Record*, XXII (1921), 334-70.

<sup>3</sup> Ayer, *Some Difficulties in Elementary School History*, 48.

<sup>4</sup> Scott and Myers, "Children's Empty and Erroneous Concepts of the Commonplace," *Journal of Educational Research*, VIII (1923), 334.

<sup>5</sup> Schwesinger, *The Social-Ethical Significance of Vocabulary*, 8.

<sup>6</sup> Meltzer, *Children's Social Concepts*, 61.

<sup>7</sup> *Ibid.*, 51-52.

<sup>8</sup> Ayer, *op. cit.*, 49.

<sup>9</sup> These three monographs, together with Thorndike's *Teacher's Word Book*, are publications of Teachers College, Columbia University.

<sup>10</sup> *Journal of Educational Research*, VII (1923), 327-34.

<sup>11</sup> Published by the Public School Publishing Company.

Frederick J. Gould, in "Transformations in History Teaching," contributed to the October issue of *History* (London), makes some observations on the improvement of the teaching of history in modern times, and presents a plan for the study of the story of civilization, with only passing mention of cruelty, war, slavery, destitution, disease, ignorance, and folly "as accidents of evolution, and subordinate to the grand human development." "Civilization is the development of habits of order, co-operation, and mutual respect; the development of humanity through nature-conquest, industry, art, literature, science, politics, and ideals, and through gradual release from slavery, poverty, disease, ignorance, and war."

The writer then presents five "norms" of civilization, one of which is "Social order and progress." Some considerations in the development of the plan include: (1) the framework of the plan is based on chronology, but only the larger units of chronology should be emphasized; (2) each "norm" should be vividly illustrated; (3) each normal activity should be associated with its evolution in order to impart "the history-touch"; (4) with the increased materials of modern anthropology, the "norms" of civilization should be traced in the lives of so-called "backward peoples"; (5) use should be made of biography.

# The First Inter-High School Model Assembly of the League of Nations

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In these days when the chief function of the school is acknowledged to be the giving of experiences which will develop in the young person the power to think clearly, the tolerance to judge fairly, the unselfishness to act generously, and the skills and powers necessary to serve effectively, we can no longer justify the textbook type of instruction. Growth comes through participation in activities rich in learning situations. Hence, one of the chief duties of the teacher is to provide ample opportunity for engaging in such activities.

Study of the underlying causes of the Great War shows that one of the forces responsible for its precipitation was overemphasis on nationalism. This ideal has been, for forty or fifty years, deliberately and carefully fostered by the educational systems of the various nations. Lamenting the outcome of such instruction, many school systems have been demanding during the past nine or ten years, that attention be given to the development of the ideal of internationalism.

The responsibility for making this shift in emphasis is falling chiefly upon the teachers of social science. How are they meeting the responsibility? Many have found it effective to study closely the ideals embodied in the League of Nations Covenant and the earnest and persistent pursuit of these ideals by members of the League Council, Assembly, and Secretariat. Such a study makes it evident that the functioning of such an organization at present is difficult, because the public is loath to modify the old ideal of nationalism and its attending practices. It seems logical to conclude that the functioning of such an organization will continue to be difficult until supported by a generation guided by the ideal of internationalism and schooled in the mechanics of international co-operation.

To most effectively bring the rising generation to an appreciation of the work that is at present attempted by the League, and to give them practice in the use of the machinery employed, various schools in the United States are closely following the proceedings of the League Assembly and actually attempting to dramatize some of the steps in what they term, "Model Assemblies of the League of Nations."

Such an activity is rich in learning situations, stirring up innumerable more problems than the recitation type of lesson. It gives purpose to the work of many of the school departments and makes for a highly integrated program.

Numerous successful attempts to dramatize the League Assembly have been made. Summarizing those of one state, of Michigan, we note an Assembly

at Grand Rapids which was put on in Central High School, for the yearly meeting of the Michigan Education Association. Other successful attempts were made by Northeastern High School of Detroit and by Pontiac High School of Pontiac. The colleges, too, have shown interest, and last spring, fourteen colleges co-operating, a most interesting performance was put on in the House of Representatives at Lansing. The latest attempt was made in Detroit when, on October 25th, twelve high schools participating, selections from the Ninth Assembly of the League were dramatized. The steps taken in the preparation of the work may be of interest to teachers of social science in other states.

Approval was first secured from the Superintendent of Schools and the Director of High Schools. Following this, a steering committee was appointed, consisting of one social science teacher from each of the twelve high schools.

Two meetings of the steering committee were held to plan the work and divide the responsibility for working up the various units. This done, it was possible for each school to work out its special part of the program independently. Miss Ursula Hubbard, Educational Secretary of the League of Nations Non-Partisan Association of Michigan, directed the work, called together the chief speakers for rehearsals and visited the various schools to help with the details of the various units. One full rehearsal took place before the program was given for the public. The first performance was given at a meeting of the Michigan Education Association with Social Science teachers from the state in attendance. The following week, high school boys and girls, together with parents, teachers, and friends assembled in the auditorium of the College of the City of Detroit early on the evening of October 25th. While waiting for the opening of the program they were interested in studying the flags of the various countries belonging to the League. These flags had been loaned by Northeastern and Northwestern High Schools, having been made for the occasion by the sewing classes of the two schools. The audience was interested also in the French forms of the names of the countries appearing on the signs which served to indicate the sections reserved for the delegates.

The setting for the Assembly was given by Dr. Parker Thomas Moon, of the Department of International Relations of Columbia University. In a brief talk he carried the audience to picturesque Geneva, took them into the Assembly Hall there and supplied something of the real atmosphere of the Ninth Assembly. With this as an inspiration, "Presi-

dent Procope" opened the session which proceeded as outlined in the program below:

Address of Welcome: Acting President, M. Procope, of Finland—John Vincent, Eastern.  
 Translation into French—George Ropes, Northern.  
 Report on Credentials of Delegates—Sidney Cohen, Commerce.  
 Election of President—Ross Kittle, William Blakeslee, Tom Willits, Tellers, Eastern.  
 Presidential Address, M. Zahle, Denmark—Jules Ayers, Northwestern.  
 Examination and Adoption of the Agenda.  
 Report on Work of Secretariat and Council, Secretary General, Sir Eric Drummond—Carl Hedeen, Cass.  
 Report of Third Committee: Arbitration, Security, Disarmament.  
 Question of Alcoholism—Mr. Piursky, Western.  
 Translation into French—Margaret Martin, Northern.  
 Report of Health Committee—William Voellmig, Southwestern.  
 Report of Economic and Financial Organization—Settlement of Bulgarian Refugees—Virginia Royce, Cooley.  
 Announcement of Results of Election of Judge for World Court—John Pritchard, Bud Verhage, Northern.  
 Report of Committee on Prevention of Traffic in Opium and other Dangerous Drugs—Mary Painter, Southeastern.  
 Report and Resolution by Third Committee, Chairman—Bruce Marshall, Central.  
 Closing Address by President.

The criticism of the program by Dr. Moon must have been most encouraging to the participants. Chief among his impressions was the fact that the student delegates portrayed their characters with intense earnestness and dignity. For the most part, the discussion was conducted on a high level and revealed the admirable qualities of statesmanship possessed by the American youth. Tardiness, restlessness, and note-writing were singularly absent in Detroit, which seemed the main respect in which Prof. Moon found the Detroit Assembly differed from the Geneva Assembly! Most important of all, according to Dr. Moon, was the splendid training in citizenship which the Assembly afforded to future voters, and probably future congressmen, from Detroit. The dramatic and oratorical achievements of the high school students were noteworthy, and indelible impressions were made on the audience by the speeches of "MacKenzie King," of Canada; "Wang-King-Ky," of China; "Nicholas Politis," of Greece; "M. Briand," of France; and "Herr Mueller," of Germany.

Teachers of classes that helped with the preparation for the Assembly agreed that the desirable outcomes of the experiment were varied and numerous. Among those enumerated were the following:

1. Increased co-operation between the various departments, especially the English, French, German, History, Public Speaking, and Sewing.
2. Incidental acquisition of many facts about current international history and about geography; acquaintance with the flags of the various nations.
3. An increased interest in international affairs and an appreciation of the present difficulties in meeting international problems.

#### 4. A definite understanding of the machinery for international co-operation now in existence.

In criticizing the procedure followed for this Model Assembly, Miss Hubbard recommended that such assemblies be planned for the spring instead of the fall, thus permitting more time for preparation and necessitating less interruption in the regular course of study; also permitting the securing of complete, verbatim reports from Geneva. The steering committee was handicapped this year, having only newspaper and magazine reports upon which to draw.

A Model Assembly may be made simple or elaborate. In either case, the fundamental training is there, and is vindicating the efforts put into the production of these Assemblies. Their importance, both for high schools and for colleges, has been fully recognized by educational leaders throughout the state, and may be summarized in the words of the President of the University of Michigan, Dr. C. C. Little, who says: "I know of no better way to find out how a thing is done than to observe its actual operation. The Model Assembly of the League of Nations furnishes a splendid opportunity to see how a great and extremely important international body functions."

#### SOURCES OF INFORMATION

- \* League of Nations News.
- \* League of Nations Outline for a Model Assembly.
- \* Publications of the Information Section of the League of Nations.

*New York Times.*

*Current History Magazine.*

- \* May be procured from the National Office of the League of Nations Non-Partisan Association, 6 East 39th Street, New York City, N. Y.

"Medieval Rome had little 'natural' incitement to greatness beyond that which inspired the small fortress towns of the Campagna. She was not a natural port, she was but an unhealthy stage or bridgehead on the western route between north and south Italy; there was nothing to bring commerce to her or to make her a center of manufacture; in the long-barren and malaria-hunted Campagna a thriving agriculture was impossible. Her population and wealth depended upon her being the chief sanctuary of Christendom, the see of the chief pontiff, the residence, in spite of intervals, of the wealthy, swarming, centralized papal court, the most elaborate administration of the Middle Age. When the Curia was fixed in the city, such local life as there was became atrophied beneath it; if the Curia was long absent, Rome ceased to be the resort of Europe; her wealth, commerce, and activity withered away and left a purposeless congregation of men, not a city or a state.... In such surroundings....the only strong and self-sufficient local life was that of the noble houses....who dominated the countryside from their strongholds, controlling fields, roads, and rivers....The true history of medieval Rome and its 'distretto' is the tangled annals of these fierce barons and their intensely local broils," says C. W. Previté-Orton, writing on "The Roman House of Caetani in the Middle Ages," in a summary of Rome's position in Italy, which he discusses apropos of the publication of the family archives by Don Gelasio Caetani (*Edinburgh Review* for October).

# Recent Happenings in the Social Studies

BY COMMITTEE ON CURRENT INFORMATION OF THE NATIONAL COUNCIL FOR THE SOCIAL STUDIES

W. G. Kimmel, Chairman

The "First School" or Certificate Examination, now in use for a decade in Great Britain, is under the control of eight examining bodies, both university and independent, with the control vested in the Examination Council of the Board of Education. It is intended as a general educational test for pupils of about sixteen years of age, who wish to end the universities, the army, and different professions. The history examination is said to be the dominating factor in the history curriculum for two last years, according to C. H. K. Masten, who summarizes the discussion at the meetings of the Historical Association in the April issue of *History* (London), under the title, "The First School Examination and the Teaching of History." Some of the criticisms summarized by the writer include: (1) the apparently increasing difficulty of the examinations, due to the fact that the percentage of pupils who received "passes with credit," the examinations decreased from 57 per cent. in 1919 to 42 per cent. in 1927, while the number who received certificates has been stabilized at about 65 per cent.; (2) variations in the standards in grading papers, "largely due to the idiosyncrasies of individual examiners"; (3) variations in "passes with credit" for different periods of history; (4) history papers are always marked low as compared with papers in other subjects; (5) lengthening of periods of history required for examination; (6) avoidance of all old questions and "hackneyed" subjects on the papers, as well as unsuitable questions; (6) effects of the examination, which are said by teachers to handicap them in their best efforts, on both teachers and pupils. Remedies suggested include: (1) history required for the examination should not involve more than one year of preparation, thereby permitting the teachers more freedom during the earlier years; (2) division of the paper into two parts, questions of fact and essay questions; (3) questions should be wider in scope, not limited to political history.

In the July number of the same magazine, Frederick Happold, in "A New Type of Question in History Papers," presents a type of question which might form the second half of a two-hour examination. Eight excerpts, dealing with Napoleon, six from standard historians and two from reported statements by Napoleon, are presented, followed by six questions concerning Napoleon which involve comparisons, summaries, and interpretation.

"The Retention of American History in the Junior High School," by Fowler D. Brooks and S. Janet Bassett, is published in the October number of *Journal of Educational Research*. The data reported form a part of the latter author's Ph.D. dissertation at Johns Hopkins University.

Data for 495 pupils in Grades VII and VIII in the Baltimore schools are reported. The tests—a part of one test is included—were constructed and administered to smaller groups to ascertain reliabilities and to profit from preliminary usage. The tests were administered at intervals from four to sixteen months after the semester in which the materials were studied. Data are presented in five tables.

The authors present the following conclusions:

1. In a year's time junior high school pupils forget 23 per cent. of the American history which they knew at the close of the semester during which it was studied.

2. Forgetting is twice as rapid during the first four months after the semester in which the history material was presented as it is during the next four months; and it is slower thereafter.

3. Accordingly, reviews should be continued at least during the early part of the semester following the one in which the material is presented.

4. Pupils who know most tend also to retain most at later intervals, individual ranks being quite similar at the initial testing and the later retestings.

5. Pupils who know most tend also to forget a little more than those who know less, but they still retain relative standings at later retestings quite similar to those on the initial ones, the average correlations being more than .80.

6. Accordingly, the best students need reviews as much as do the average or poorer students.

7. After the fourth month of forgetting pupils make little change in relative standings, all the correlations being .90 or more.

8. Whenever courses of study in the junior high school provide separate and distinct units of work for each half year, definite provision is needed for reviewing each term's work during the following term. In this way permanence of learning can be more effectively secured."

A new type of organization of a course in "Problems of American Democracy" is provided in *Curriculum Making in Problems of American Democracy as Applied to the Unit-Public Opinion* (Maryland School Bulletin, X, September, 1928), No. 2. The material was prepared by a Committee of High School Teachers of the Social Studies of Queen Anne's County, Maryland. J. Montgomery Gambrill, Teachers College, Columbia University, has written a foreword for the course, entitled, "Civic Problems in the Last Year of the High School." E. C. Fontaine, State Supervisor of High Schools in Maryland, has contributed an "Introductory Statement," in which he follows the technique of instruction and organization of materials formulated by H. C. Morrison in the University of Chicago Laboratory Schools. Both men were advisers to the Committee.

The proposed course of study is built about three large units for instructional purposes, of which the materials on "Public Opinion," developed in the Bulletin, form one part. The "study outline" for the unit includes the following main headings: "Individual Opinion," "Group Opinion," "Public Opinion and How It Is Made," "The Press," "Freedom of Speech and the Press; Censorship; Tolerance, etc." There are lists of questions and problems, extensive bibliographies, and a list of projects. An annotated list of books for teachers is appended.

The 46-page pamphlet contains the most complete and exhaustive type of unit organization which has come to the writer's attention. Although public opinion is a basic element in all phases of contemporary life, most courses either ignore it or else treat it in an incidental way. This course, on the other hand, makes "Public Opinion" a basic and comprehensive unit, which displaces the academic and formal materials usually found in such courses. At the same time, the unit provides a functional approach to the machinery of government, basic principles of government, propaganda, the press, elements of social psychology, the historical antecedents of the struggle for freedom of speech and press. In short, about one unit are woven history, government, sociology, social psychology, fundamental institutions, politics, and certain ramifications in other subject fields. Not only is the approach functional and realistic, but the bibliographies, particularly the references to periodical literature, provide challenging content materials of a concrete type rather than academic and generalized materials usually found in courses. Finally, the entire unit is planned to be developed through the use of technique of instruction which offers possibilities for a thorough understanding of some of the most fundamental problems of contemporary life.

There are times when a critical estimate of what some persons think of us is a valuable spur to further endeavor.

There are a considerable number of school people who declare that the social studies program is in a chaotic condition. Mercedes O'Brien, in the October number of *American Education*, joins this group in her appraisal of "The Present Status of the Social Studies." Confusion in terminology, lack of clearly defined concepts, differences in the range of the social studies program, with the resultant stress of curriculum-makers on non-essentials, are some of the items in the indictment. Until there is some agreement concerning the underlying and basic philosophy of the social studies in a program of civic education, discussion of types of courses, number of objectives, methods, an activities program, are non-essentials. "...the social studies movement is more concerned in questions of method, of types, subject-matter, and even texts, than with that vital thing—the place of the social studies in a program of civic education."

The social studies, according to the writer, do not comprise the whole program of civic education, yet many courses seem to be based on the implied assumption that the boundaries of the social studies are coterminous with the field of civic education. Fusion or composite courses are opposed because of the above implication, as well as on the belief that separate courses contribute to different understandings, different phases of training for citizenship. Citizenship is not a unitary concept, constant in reactions and responses, nor is it reducible to a formula. Since citizenship is complex, and since qualities of citizenship are not determined by rule, the more subjects which approach the civics problems and civics situations from different points of view, the more closely will civic training approach true citizenship.

An address by W. W. Charters, entitled, "The Use of Activity Analysis in Curriculum Construction," delivered at the Convocation of the University of the State of New York and published in the November 14th issue of *Educational Research Bulletin* (Ohio University, Columbus), mentions, among other items, the influence of activity analysis in the changes in civics courses. From the discussion of the machinery and functions of government, the emphasis has shifted to problems faced by citizens and attempts made to solve those problems. From conventional and academic chapter headings in textbooks, the change has brought about social and functional approaches through chapter headings and materials which are more closely related to the life of pupils. Rugg's work is mentioned as an example of the newer type of approach based on problems encountered by citizens.

Harl R. Douglass, in the October number of *Journal of Educational Research*, contributes "An Experimental Investigation of the Relative Effectiveness of Two Plans of Supervised Study." Ten pairs of classes, including three pairs history and two pairs of civics classes, were selected as subjects for the investigation. The Gregory *American History Test*, Part III, for seventh and eighth grades and high school, was used for all history and civics classes. Among the investigator's conclusions, it is found that the S-R sequence (study followed by recitation) is superior to the R-S sequence (recitation followed by study) for classes in history and civics, and the superiority of the S-R sequence becomes more marked from the seventh to the eleventh grade.

Henry H. Callard, in "History as Social Evolution," in the autumn number of *Progressive Education*, presents an interesting survey of history for secondary schools. History must be viewed as a living whole, in which every age has contributed toward what is called civilization. The primary aim is the creation of a useful background of historical knowledge through the conception of the whole range of history by an understanding of the major movements. A preliminary course might well deal with the story of civilization, which may be developed through a study of the outstanding personalities of history. The general introductory course may be followed by a study of the following divisions: 1. The Ancient Oriental

Monarchies, 2. The Graeco-Roman Era, 3. The Medieval Period, and 4. The Modern Period. The selection of subject-matter should be determined by the aim of the creation of the spirit of great eras through the feeling and understanding of the social background of those eras.

While the study of local and national history has a place, there is a tendency in such courses to develop narrow prejudices and intolerance toward the past as well as toward contemporary peoples, to create a smugness and complacency which restricts development. History represents the natural and logical unifying case for the entire secondary school curriculum.

Training in citizenship presents a series of problems which demand some solution. Shall training in citizenship in elementary schools be provided through a formal course in civics or through the recognition and use civic situations as they arise in the school and the community? Minneapolis, in the report of a committee, entitled, *Citizenship Training in the Minneapolis Public Schools, Elementary Grades* (Educational Bulletin, No. 13, June, 1928), proposes to make use of actual civic situations in training in citizenship. The school organization, the classroom organization, the teaching technique, the activities program, and the civic leagues (classroom organizations) are mentioned briefly in relation to the possibilities afforded for training in citizenship.

A series of nine civic ideals, selected from hundreds of items submitted by the teaching staff, are presented. Each objective is stated with one or more sub-points, and is further differentiated and analyzed in connection with civic situations and citizenship responses. Four stenographic reports of Civic League meetings, each in a different grade room, are included. There are useful bibliographies.

The report reflects the current trend toward the teaching of ideals and character education. There is also reflected the trend away from formal courses in civics at the elementary school toward the goal of training for citizenship in the total school situation, based on the concept gained from social psychology that the learning process is a social process.

Jennie L. Hendricks contributes "Teaching Citizenship Through Co-operation" in the November number of *Educational Method*. The pupils in a sixth-grade room were to carry forward certain activities in and out of school. After a certain amount of study of materials a constitution was developed, officers were elected, and parliamentary procedure was studied. A copy of the constitution and a list of activities performed by the children are included.

In the same publication, Lillian A. Williams contributes a description of "A Roman House Project," developed by a group of eighth-grade boys. Activities and content materials are listed.

J. Wesley Foote is the author of *A Student's Workbook in Civics, Directed Civics Study* (World Book Company, Yonkers, N. Y.). The manual is built about a series of study units, grouped about fourteen major problems of community life. The study units include: (1) a statement of the objective, (2) the assignment which includes definite page references in the most-used textbooks, (3) a list of additional references for advanced study and special reports, (4) a series of exercises which pupils are expected to complete. The manual contains 154 pages, and is similar in form to other manuals published by the firm.

The World Book Company, Yonkers, N. Y., in co-operation with the American Council on Education, has recently issued the following tests: Harry J. Carman, Walter C. Langsam, and Ben D. Wood, *American Council European History Test*; Robert D. Leigh, Joseph D. McGoldrick, Peter H. Odegard, and Ben D. Wood, *American Council Civics and Government Test*; Horace Taylor, Thomas N. Barrows, and Ben D. Wood, *American Council Economics Test*. Each test is published in two forms. There is a directions sheet, a scoring key, and a class record sheet for each test.

F. L. Stetson, in the October number of *The School* (University of Oregon), contributes a study of "The Distribution of High School Students in Oregon," with respect to subjects included in pupil programs of study. Data for 11,339 pupils from 131 high schools for 1924-25 are tabulated; these data represent about one-half of the standard high schools and about one-third of the total pupil enrollment in the State. 73.7 per cent. of the pupils were enrolled in social studies courses, divided among different subjects as follows: Civics, 20.4 per cent.; American History, 19.3 per cent.; Ancient History, 16.2 per cent.; Medieval History, 12.9 per cent.; Sociology, 2.2 per cent.; World History, 1.2 per cent.; Economics, 1.1 per cent.; Geography, 1.1 per cent. Data, arranged in seven categories, according to the size of the teaching staff, show that the percentage of pupils' time devoted to the social studies decreases with the increase in size of the school. In one-teacher high schools, 21.4 per cent. of pupils' time is given to the social studies; in two-teacher schools, 24.6 per cent., with decreases in each larger school, until in high schools employing twenty or more teachers 16.1 per cent. of the pupils' time is devoted to the social studies. The average percentage of time for the social studies for all schools is 18.3 per cent. The social studies stand second in the list in point of time devoted to subject fields; English ranks first, with an average of 24.8 per cent.

Two years of social studies are required by the State, and the actual time given to the social studies is almost twice the amount required. While social studies were given practically the same amount of time as English in the smaller high schools, in the larger high schools the ratio is 2 to 3, due largely to the increased number of elective courses.

Lynn M. Barrett contributed "Suggestions and Material for Teaching the Alameda County (California) Charter" in the July number of the *University High School Journal* (Oakland, California). Features of the article are: suggested assignments, an evaluation of the Charter, and a synopsis of its principal features. These are excellent organization charts, which provide an effective type of visual materials for learning the machinery of government set up by the Charter.

In the same publication Paul J. Woolf sets forth certain specifications for materials, techniques, and evaluations of "The Use of Visual Aids in Education." While not directly focused on the teaching of the social studies, practically all the suggestions offered by the writer can be applied in the social studies. There is a general bibliography of 46 titles.

Helen L. Price, in the same number, contributes valuable concrete suggestions on the preparation and filing of "Fugitive Material for Teaching." Materials needed, price lists, suggestions for making pamphlet holders, file folders, pamphlet covers, and the mounting of pictures are included, and all suggestions can be followed by social studies teachers in their accumulation and filing of materials for classroom use.

The November number of *The Palimpsest* (The State Historical Society, Iowa City, Iowa) contains a series of interesting articles about "The Coppoc Boys" and the incidents and episodes at Harper's Ferry. The four articles, two of which are adapted from materials previously published, furnish concrete materials of interest to pupils in history classes.

Materials received during the month which are concerned with a discussion of the General Treaty for the Renunciation of War include: Foreign Policy Association, *Information Service*, IV (November 9, 1928), "The Anti-War Pact" (18 East Forty-first Street, New York City); *The General Pact for the Renunciation of War: Text of the Pact as Signed, Notes, and Other Papers* (Washington, Government Printing Office, 15 cents); Kirby Page, *The Renunciation of War* (Doubleday, Doran & Co., 10 cents); Commission on International Justice and Good-will of the Federal Council of the Churches of Christ in America, *The Proposal to Renounce War: A Four Weeks' Study Course of the Multilateral Anti-War Pact of Paris* (105 East Twenty-second Street, New York City, 15 cents).

## Book Reviews

EDITED BY PROFESSOR HARRY J. CARMAN, COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY

*An Outline History of Art.* By Joseph Pijoan. Translated from the Spanish by Ralph L. Roys. 3 vols.: I, 548 pp.; II, 564 pp.; III, 612 pp. Harper & Brothers, New York, 1927-1928. \$12.50 per vol.

This ambitious work seeks to provide a comprehensive narrative, descriptive and critical account of architecture, sculpture, painting, and the so-called minor arts from primitive times to the twentieth century. In the wide range of subjects covered and in its unrivaled collection of nearly three thousand pictures, this is one of the most extensive general histories of art in any language. The author is a Spaniard who has been a Professor in the School of Architecture at Barcelona, head of the Spanish School of Archaeology in Rome, Professor of Art in Toronto where he was also a practicing architect, and now after traveling and studying in many countries is a Professor in Pomona College, California. His studies have included not only the history of art in the narrower sense, but archaeology and the whole range of general world history. It is unusual, indeed, for the author of a history of art to bring such an equipment to his task.

Volume I begins with chapters on Modern Primitive Art and on the Art of the Reindeer Epoch and the Neolithic period in Europe. The next seven chapters deal with Egypt and Western Asia and the spread of their influence. Chapter X is devoted to the Far East, and includes India and Cambodia, China, and Japan. Aegean Art gets a

chapter, Greek and Hellenistic Art five chapters, and Roman Art four, while the final chapter is devoted to aboriginal American art, dealing with Mexico, Yucatan, and Peru. The author's keen interest in archaeology and the thoroughness of his studies are apparent at many points in this volume. The general plan is to view in turn the development of art in particular regions, often widely separated, rather than to present a picture of what is going on at the same time in different places.

Volume II is devoted to European art from the early Christian works in Rome and the Near East to the Flemish art of the fifteenth century, with a chapter on the rise and spread of Moslem art. Four chapters and parts of some others are devoted to the Romanesque and four to the development of Gothic art. The characteristic artistic developments of the Middle Ages are thus treated at generous length for a work of such comprehensive scope.

In Volume III the author undertakes to cover the entire field of modern art, from the Italian Renaissance to the twentieth century, with his distribution of space heavily in favor of the earlier periods. Italian art through the sixteenth century is allotted ten chapters covering 254 pages, while most of Chapter XIV is devoted to the Baroque style in Italy. The Renaissance in Spain, France, and Germany gets three chapters, while the Baroque style in Spain and Spanish America receives a chapter, and the Baroque in Northern and Eastern Europe part of another.

Most of the remainder of the volume is devoted to Western Europe to the early nineteenth century, with a few brief references to American painters, more particularly those who came under the influence of the English School. Rather curiously, in view of numerous important omissions or deplorably condensed accounts, Benjamin West gets two pages, apparently because of his prominence in official and social circles in London. The Impressionists and their immediate successors are very sketchily treated in two pages, Whistler being included with Manet, Monet, and Degas. Renoir is briefly mentioned at this point, although allotted a full-page plate in color. Cezanne gets a brief paragraph for having developed "a new aspect of Impressionism." The subject is then dropped until these artists are treated in a final chapter on twentieth century art. The treatment of American artists both here and in the chapter on current art is very scanty. The Hudson River School is barely mentioned. George Innes gets four lines, Winslow Homer six, Sargent and George Bellows seven lines each, while numerous others are not mentioned at all.

The chapter on Contemporary Art occupies sixteen pages, including illustrations, hardly more than one finds in a good single volume manual like Helen Gardner's *Art Through the Ages*. This chapter treats of the twentieth century, holding that its "artistic revolt...has been mainly a rebellion against the imitation of nature practiced by the Impressionists" (p. 532), and presenting as pioneers Renoir, Cezanne, Van Gogh, and Paul Gauguin, though all these men did much of their work before 1900, Gauguin dying in 1903, and Van Gogh committing suicide in 1890. The Cubists are very briefly treated with Picasso and Braque as the pioneers. Futurism is somewhat vaguely included, while Expressionism is treated more definitely. In spite of the extreme brevity of this chapter, however, the author manages to make it interesting, including a number of striking quotations from the artist innovators and from critics like Roger Fry, Clive Bell, José Ortega, and the German Bahr, with very interesting interpretative comments by Mr. Pijoan himself. Sculpture is treated in a short paragraph and the skyscraper in seven lines.

The preceding statements will indicate some of the limitations of the work. The very fact that the author has chosen to make it so comprehensive compels him to extreme brevity at some points, and perhaps it would be unfair to criticize too severely because his own judgment about proportions may not be in agreement with that of the reader or reviewer. It is fair, however, to point out some of these limitations as matters of fact. The rather difficult and often puzzling subject of modernistic art in its varied aspects, even apart from its relation to modern expression in other fields, such as music, literature, and the drama, needs a more extended and concrete treatment, and more numerous illustrations than Mr. Pijoan has provided. A particularly serious case of condensation appears in Chapter X of Volume I in which the art of the Far East, including India, China, and Japan, is treated in 24 pages. Miss Gardner's one-volume manual allots 62 pages to the same subject, while Faure's famous *History of Art* in four volumes much smaller than those of Pijoan devotes 164 pages, and Cotterill's *History of Art* in two volumes devotes 38 pages to the Far and Middle East. The inevitable result of this extreme compression is an unsatisfactory and seriously inadequate sketch.

The illustrations are a major feature of the work, there being more than 2500 excellent half-tone pictures clearly printed on heavily coated paper, besides 167 full-page plates, some of them in color. The famous and familiar subjects are here, but also hundreds of others not so well known yet important for their beauty or their representative character. The subjects include all those treated in the text—architecture, sculpture, painting, a variety of decorative arts and a wide range of archaeological subjects. It is a truly remarkable collection of pictures, which alone would justify the publication of the work. In general format the volumes are beautiful and substantial.

They were printed in Spain from clear and well-spaced type on coated paper, and bound in green buckram with gold lettering and design. The page is a little less than seven by ten inches.

Professor Pijoan's style is clear, simple, informal, and free of extravagance or sentimentality. He never falls into the rhetorical manner of writing which at times becomes tedious or annoying in the great work of Faure. His treatment is simple and untechnical, never academic or pedantic. He manages to preserve some life and vigor in his style by limiting the number of topics treated, the plan being to select for each period or school the most representative subjects, the chief exponents among the artists, and the characteristic techniques. He does not attempt to go into philosophy or aesthetics, and thus allows himself some scope for critical estimates that are in the main objective, moderate, and competent.

At the end of each chapter throughout the three volumes the author provides a summary which is usually helpful in throwing into strong relief the general developments described at more length on the preceding pages. Following the summary is in all cases a bibliography of moderate length citing the best books and the most useful periodicals in English, French, German, Spanish, and Italian, but without annotations. British and American works are perhaps cited somewhat less frequently than is desirable, at least in an English edition. The lists of periodicals are distinctly helpful. The Table of Contents is moderately full. In each volume there is an index to the names of the artists, archaeologists, and critics cited, and a full list of illustrations. Volume III provides in addition an index to all works of art reproduced or mentioned in the three volumes, but these could have been used with greater facility if running titles had been provided, since there are separate indexes for architecture, painting, and sculpture.

The value of the work for reference purposes is somewhat curtailed by the very scanty supply of dates and the failure in many cases, including such important painters as Romney and Lawrence, to give the artist's first name. According to the author's plan, artists whose position is that of bridging gaps between periods have been omitted, sometimes in spite of considerable merit. Latin names are used throughout for the Greek gods, a practice which the author defends in the Preface, but not convincingly for some readers at least. The proofreading seems to have been decidedly inadequate at some points in the last volume: a line of type was evidently left out on page 523; "boht" appears for "both" on page 547; "simbols" for "symbols" on page 544; and on page 541 we have "Clive Bell...insist on," etc. It seems inevitable that in such a work there should be a few errors in citing dates of publication of books, and in the index, but not many of these have been noticed.

This work in the original Spanish, we are assured in the Foreword of Director Robert H. Harshe of the Chicago Art Institute, was "most cordially received in Europe and America." Its growing repute among art students of many countries makes the English edition very welcome. The work is valuable not only as a history of art in the narrower sense, but as a treatment of social history with much incidental material concerning thought and culture, customs and religion, and ways of living. In spite of the limitations mentioned in this review it is a work of very great value not only for the general reader or the special student of art but for school and college libraries, and for the desk of the history teacher. High school students will delight in many of the pictures. The story of the fine arts in their relation to general social conditions and changes of civilization should receive more attention than it has been given even in the more recent textbooks and courses of study. Current history courses give much attention to economic factors, and changing fashions in thought and opinion have also been receiving more attention, but literature and the fine arts are still dealt with in too niggardly a manner. Very fruitful co-operation between the fine arts and history departments is possible, and even from the point of view of popular interest this demand might be

urged, for a surprising number of books on the fine arts have been coming from our publishers during the past five or six years, indicating a growing number of readers. After absorption during most of our national life in economic progress, there are signs that the United States is passing into a new era with respect to the fine arts, plastic and graphic, and music and literature as well. Professor Pijoan's handsome and scholarly volumes are welcome.

J. MONTGOMERY GAMBRILL.

Teachers College, Columbia University.

*History of England.* By George Macaulay Trevelyan. Longmans, Green, London and New York, 1926. xx, 723 pp.

*History of the People of England, Volume III, 1689-1834.* By Alice Drayton Greenwood. Sheldon Press, London, 1926. xiv, 336 pp.

During the last five years there has been a large output of textbooks on English history, largely from American scholars, who had, up to that time, rather sedulously avoided, with one notable exception, the field of college textbooks in English history. The two volumes here under review, however, have been written in England. The former has been used somewhat as a text in American colleges, although it was not primarily intended to serve that purpose.

The first of these scholarly volumes is certainly the most brilliant single volume history of England since that of John Richard Green appeared some half century ago. In its style it is eminently worthy of a son of the late Sir George Otto Trevelyan, and a grand-nephew of Lord Macaulay. The enormous labor that has gone into the preparation of this work, is usually effectively concealed by the author's facility of expression, and the amount of careful, constructive interpretation is amazing in a volume of its size.

The work shows a certain lack of balance, however, which is chiefly evident in the later period. The Tudors are given 108 pages, while the period since Waterloo, which is almost equal in length, receives only 90. There is little on the last sixty years, and practically nothing on the last quarter century. At times he appears to ignore the work of Continental European and American students in the field of English history. The fact that the average reader is unfamiliar with French or German may justify the omission of the works of Klopp, and Von Noorden on the seventeenth century, and of Vaucher, Michael and Von Ruville in the eighteenth (although the last is translated), but why were the scholarly contributions of Pease, Miss Brown and Miss Barbour to the Stuart period overlooked? Even Professor Cheyney's excellent account of the later Elizabethan period, and E. R. Turner's accounts of the early development of the cabinet are not mentioned.

The second work is a welcome continuation of the series written by Miss Greenwood, and is intended as a text for English schools. For this purpose it is probably well adapted, but it takes far too much information for granted to be used in the average American high school. Although this little volume is, perhaps, too replete with facts, at times it contains some exceptionally able interpretations of them. The bibliography would have been more useful had it supplemented the chapters in the text instead of being in one long introductory note. Although she cites Professor Osgood's *American Colonies in the Seventeenth Century*, she seems unaware of his later work in four volumes on the eighteenth century which should have proved far more valuable for the period covered by this volume. The reviewer noted very few errors, all of them with one exception (the misspelling of Hartford, Ct.) deal with the diplomacy of the period from 1711 to 1716 (pp. 42, 70, 73, 75). For a textbook, the volume is poorly supplied with maps, but it contains an adequate index.

WILLIAM THOMAS MORGAN.

Indiana University.

*Russian Economic Development Since the Revolution.* By Maurice Dobb. E. P. Dutton, New York, 1928. xii, 415 pp. \$5.00.

*Lenin.* By Valeriu Marcu. The Macmillan Co., New York, 1928. 412 pp. \$5.00.

Our books about the Russian Revolution are becoming better and better, and the interpretation, even the concatenation, of events which they provide is becoming more and more credible. Last year's tenth anniversary produced a flood of books on Russia, and among them H. H. Fisher's *The Famine in Soviet Russia* (Macmillan), the Vanguard Press series of small special studies, and *Soviet Russia in the Second Decade* (John Day), are instances of the new note of objective study and comparative credibility. It took many years for the pioneer search for truth of journalists and observers like Michael Farbman to win a hearing above the street-cries of purveyors of the isolated horrible and the titillating picturesque. The two volumes now under review can be added to the growing line of good books on the shelves given over to the Russian Revolution.

Mr. Dobb's book is quite formidable both in its close reasoning and in the immense amount of data it presents. In fact, its reader is warned to shut himself off from interruption and to prepare for a serious task, and one in which he will be checked by occasional confusion, obscurity, and even contradiction. These faults, however, can be forgiven in view of the author's imposing undertaking. As is well known, the Russian Revolution has not been, and is not now, a simple, "pure" process. It began as a political upheaval, speedily gathered to itself social and economic implications of a fundamental kind, fought for four years in its own and Russia's defence, and only in 1922 began national reconstruction. Its good fortune was possession of a dictator, whose theory made the revolution, but who was a great realist as well; yet below and around him were prophets, priests, and visionaries whose greatest ability was for talk and irresponsible experiment. Mr. Dobb, undaunted by the mess of contradiction and short-lived processes, set himself to categorizing the evidence, making patterns for it, and presenting a reasonable explanation of its course from before 1914 down to 1927. Under the discouraging circumstances, he must be said to have done extraordinarily well. He shows, for instance, an excellent grasp of Lenin's practicality and separates design from uncontrolled extravagances. His analysis and discussion of War Communism (1917-21) is the first approach to success which your reviewer has seen. The same might be said of his treatment of the "Scissors" crisis of 1923. Throughout he seldom loses sight of the basic Russian influences which so quickly and continuously forced the revolution from the neat paths of theory to the wilderness of the experimental approach, this in spite of the fact that his preoccupation with the industrial side of the State Plan makes him somewhat less attentive to some basic agricultural problems such as the relation of small holdings to exportable surplus, local trading in kind, and the extensive home handicraft industry. It is, of course, much easier to talk definitely about governmental industry and enterprise and its workers, but some one some day must do the same for Russia's main industry, agriculture and its workers. Meanwhile students can be very grateful for a sincere and immensely industrious piece of analysis and synthesis, and they will have no cause for complaint if their reading of the data provided carries them to conclusions which vary from Mr. Dobb's. His offering of evidence is vast in comparison with his ventures in "futures."

Marcu's task is simpler, but only because he grasps at the very outset the necessity of explaining Lenin in terms of change rather than as the unswerving embodiment of a simple idea. There is, of course, a superficial difference between his book and Dobb's in the absence of *apparatus criticus* and the paraphernalia of academic research, and in the Continental biographical form which he adopts. He leaves out or inconspicuously compresses whole months and entire aspects of Lenin's Russian career. But he does make Lenin a human being, instead of a symbol, and whether one regards Vladimir Ilyitch Ulianov as saint or devil or embodiment of a moment predetermined by his

tory, his life and his revolution become coherent. Moreover, among the epigrams and "literary" soliloquies of a rapidly-moving story there are some true jewels of sharply-faceted perception. The analogy and difference between Stolypin's surrender to the peasants and Lenin's is an example in point. Another is the development which led from pity for human misery to adoption of the Marxian creed, to failure and obscurity in the first decade of the century, and finally to an obsession with Power which secured it because it was assumed in a complete realization that longing for Power meant longing for Responsibility. The apparent miracle of 1917 is credible to the reader of this book who can bring imagination with him. Better still, the course after War Communism is made clear and intelligible, and it can be summed up in a single sentence from the book. "For the first time, however, in history, Power was dictating *her* laws to a Socialist—not to a man in opposition, not to one of the oppressed, but to one who possessed her, who kissed the feet of this living goddess, humored her every move, was inseparable from her." "I go to work from the standpoint of the peasant," was Lenin's rebuff to the men in the Left Wing of his party who thought that attack in the name of theory would serve as administration of a peasant empire. It is encouraging to read a popular biography of a puzzling world figure which can preserve a fair balance between Lenin's highest aspirations and what Russia let him achieve.

BARTLET BREBNER.

Columbia University.

*The New Map of South America.* By Herbert Adams Gibbons. The Century Co., New York, 1928. xiii, 400 pp. Maps.

*Economic Geography of South America.* By R. H. Whitbeck. McGraw-Hill Book Co., New York, 1926. vii, 430 pp. Maps, charts, illus.

*South America, An Economic and Regional Geography with an Historical Chapter.* By E. J. Shanahan. E. P. Dutton & Co., New York, 1927. xiv, 318 pp. Maps, diagrams.

The three volumes here reviewed are listed in the order of their readability and technicality, the first being most readable and least technical.

Among the works of Dr. Gibbons are *The New Map of Europe* (1914), *The New Map of Africa* (1916), and *The New Map of Asia* (1919). The volume under review is thus the latest study in this series. The author says: "As in the other 'New Maps,' our object in this book has been to take up a continent and tell enough about the natural resources and political development to give each of the countries its place in contemporary history. We have tried to eliminate those events, dates, and statistics that are unimportant in the placing of each country in its international setting.... Many fascinating things have been barely mentioned and others have been left out altogether" (p. viii). However, enough has been given about the several nations "to enable the reader to gain an intelligent appreciation of the South American attitude toward the rest of the world, of the relations among South American countries, and of the influence, present and potential, of these countries in international affairs" (p. ix).

Each of the ten states of South America is treated separately and in a nearly uniform fashion so that the author touches upon the geographical, the economic, the social, the intellectual, and the political history of each unit. Similarly "Panama," the "Islands Under European Control," and the Guianas are dealt with in separate chapters numbered XI, XIII, XIV, respectively, while four further chapters cover "The Background of the South American Republics" (Chap. I), "The Question of the Pacific" (Chap. VIII), "The Monroe Doctrine" (Chap. XVI), and "Pan Americanism" (Chap. XVII, the last). In a measure this work both supplements and complements Dr. Rippy's *Latin America in World Politics* (1928), while at the same time it acts as an antidote to some impressions conveyed in Warshaw, *The New Latin America* (1922).

The volume is written in the familiarly pleasing style of the author. The material presented is based upon first-

hand information, speeches, public documents, periodical literature, works of travel and description, histories and books of general reference. The volume, however, is not documented because the author feels that the time-honored, though perhaps fallacious, custom of suppressing such mechanical features as footnotes will popularize a book. The index, while perhaps not complete as one might wish, has nevertheless been carefully prepared. In a revised edition certain Spanish words, mainly proper names, should be spelled with the accent marks and a few dates should be revised.

Despite the sketchiness of this volume it can be laid aside by the reader with the knowledge that one has a well-rounded picture of the South American continent, its geography, its peoples, its life, its history, and its present and future problems, and with the hope that those states will be treated in the future by their foreign neighbors more in accordance with the precepts of the Golden Rule, thus allowing them the chance to develop into what is promised by the frequently used expression, "The Continent of Opportunity."

If, in the second title, Professor Whitbeck would add to his book chapters on the economic geography of Mexico, Central America, and the West Indies, and call the volume "An Economic Geography of Hispanic America," all Hispanic American history teachers would be immensely grateful, for such a book when written will constitute an admirable forerunner to the inevitable economic history of those states which must soon appear. Yet as the book stands it is a text which should be studied in connection with all history courses dealing with South America. Moreover, it will rank as a reference book with the volumes of Felsinger, Warshaw, Cooper, Jones, Peck, and Shanahan.

Professor Whitbeck has presented a balanced treatment of his subject from the historical, "Human Geographical," and geographical viewpoints. But this is not an historical geography of South America in the strict sense. Instead, it is almost a handbook, and when the maps, charts, and graphs are considered it is invaluable for illustrative purposes.

The organization of the subject-matter is regional by states or parts of states except Chapter I, which deals with the continent as a whole, and Chapter XVIII, the last, which constitutes a summary. The latter chapter is entitled, "South America as a whole and its relations to the United States," and might be read with profit first. It is followed by five statistical tables of economic comparison. To most of the chapters the author has added carefully selected lists of general references. The index has been well prepared. In a word, the book does credit both to the author and to the publisher.

The third volume under review has been written by an Englishman for the use of college students and for those interested in the geography, resources, industries and general economic life of the continent of South America. The author has attempted to show how these factors have helped to mould the history of the continent and have determined the direction in which material development has taken place (vii). Because the states of South America do not constitute, in the geographical sense, "natural regions," Mr. Shanahan has not considered them as separate units, but has given his chapter headings geographical, geological, or economic titles.

The author holds the thesis that on the South American continent "natural conditions have appeared more important than political factors" (vii). He asserts very pointedly in Chapter XXII that the course of development of any region is determined by the three major factors of climate, physical and geological structure, and the character and aptitudes of the people that inhabit it. Of these, climate taken in the widest sense, is the most important factor because it influences the other two. In the Spanish occupation of America much of the territory lay in the torrid zone with climates unlike that of the homeland. This fact not only adversely affected the economic but the social, intellectual, and political life as well. Besides the

retarding influence of climate, there were the geological characteristics, including topography, mineral distribution, and soil. Add to these, weak, indifferent, and unstable governments, an apathetic people consisting of mixed races increasing slowly in numbers, hampered by distance from world markets, and suffering from fuel shortage, it is easy to understand why many South American states have not been able to overcome quickly their geographical handicaps. Hence, under such circumstances, the author concludes that the economic future of this continent lies not along manufacturing lines, but along agricultural lines.

Mr. Shanahan has suitably illustrated his text with 50 sketch maps and charts, but the value of some of the former is lost because dates are not attached. A bibliography, pages 303-305, is brief but serviceable. The index is good. By far the best chapter in the book for the student of Hispanic American history is the third, entitled, "The Course of European Settlement." This is a good example of a much needed treatment of Hispanic American development from the standpoint of "historical geography."

A. CURTIS WILGUS.

University of South Carolina.

*Sir Martin Frobisher.* By William McFee. Harper & Brothers, New York, 1928. xiv, 276 pp. \$4.00.

This life in the *Golden Hind* series has been entrusted to a novelist of the sea, and the result is much that might have been expected. The materials for Frobisher's life are relatively scanty and discontinuous, and invite the sort of conjecture a novelist can supply. In this case, from the standpoint of literary art, the reader is sometimes inclined to wish that the author were not so humble and painstaking as he is where contemporary evidence is available. Mr. McFee is happiest where he has either a lot of immediate evidence or none. In the former event he digests the materials and rids his mind and tale of contradictions; in the latter he trusts his mariner's instinct and sense of history. In the former category one would place his accounts of the voyages for the Northwest Passage, most of the story of guarding the Straits of Dover, and the discussion of the fight with the Armada. In the latter category belong the first chapter and a number of speculative digressions throughout the book.

It is doubtful whether there is any history more difficult to translate into credible modern interpretation than that of Elizabethan England. There is a small body of industrious and cautious scholars who are gradually satisfying themselves and other students as to various aspects of the time. On the whole, the amateur would do well to avoid history so full of pitfalls even for the expert. Mr. McFee has written a biography which is often remarkably apt in catching the flavor of Elizabethan marine adventure, but his distance from the enormous body of source material and limitations of time have prevented his book from ranking in usefulness with such a work as Williamson's *Hawkins*, although that, too, contains some speculation. There is one curious statement on page 14 to the effect that only after 1539 could European ships tack against a head wind. No reader should be allowed to retain that impression.

BARTLET BREBNER.

*James Buchanan and His Cabinet on the Eve of Secession.* By Philip Gerald Auchampaugh. Privately printed, 1926. ix, 224 pp.

No history written during the stress of war or in the darkness of war prejudice can remain permanent. The World War produced a mythical history of German blood-guiltiness which is now in the hands of the revisionists. In like manner the Civil War was recorded by historians naturally influenced almost entirely by the northern point of view. At length after fifty years, revisionists are at work in this field. The book under review is a product of the changing opinion.

Quite naturally, as the immediate difficulties which brought on the Civil War occurred in Mr. Buchanan's administration, he has received much condemnation for his failure to take measures to prevent secession. The belief

that Mr. Buchanan was a feeble old man, criminally pro-Southern, has been a prevalent impression. To place this unfortunate President's reputation in its true light is the purpose of the book.

There are five chapters, two of which are introductory. In the first the author states his purpose and briefly summarizes Buchanan's career to demonstrate his ability and training for the high position he entered in 1857. He shows that he had been a successful lawyer and politician who had made a fortune at the bar, and had acceptably filled a number of public positions in Congress, cabinet, and legislature. His second chapter, also introductory, deals with Buchanan's Kansas policy which he describes as determined principally by a natural desire to remove this burning question from politics. This is done very well, although in condemning Robert J. Walker's administration of the territory he entirely ignores the latter's side of the controversy.

These chapters introduce a careful and thorough analysis of the relations of Buchanan and his cabinet and the events from November 7, 1860, to March 4, 1861. In this analysis the author endeavors to show that Buchanan was consistently trying to prevent bloodshed and curb secession; that his seeming inactivity was due to an honest belief that he lacked power, and that this policy would best promote peace; and also that the President was by no means feeble and vacillating, but strong and consistent, dominating his advisers and managing his own administration.

This book shows considerable careful research and sifting of evidence, much of it conflicting and vague. On the whole, it gives the facts of Buchanan's policy and his motives. The weakness of the case lies in the quality of the evidence. This consists largely of the statements of Buchanan and his cabinet, most of them on the defensive in the North, made anywhere from three to twenty-three years after the events in an endeavor to make their records clear. The reliability of such evidence, granting as we should the honesty of the witness, is not of the highest order. Also the author imputes to a number of those who have written about Buchanan a maliciousness which they in all probability did not have and his enthusiasm for his client leads him to make Buchanan consistently exhibit "noble" characteristics without their counterbalancing less admirable traits. The book, however, is of value in that it publishes many documents from the Buchanan and other manuscript collections; it has a very interesting group of photographs of Buchanan and his advisers, perhaps the first ever taken of a cabinet; and most important, it brings to light and puts into convenient compass much truth about Buchanan and the difficult days of the close of his administration.

Roy F. NICHOLS.

University of Pennsylvania.

*The American Indian Frontier.* By William Christie Macleod. Alfred A. Knopf, New York, 1928. xxiii, 598 pp.

This volume is one of the *History of Civilization* series, and "represents the first attempt at an analysis of American frontier history made particularly from the viewpoint of the Indian side of the frontier development." As such it is an important contribution. Historians, as well as anthropologists and sociologists, may benefit from its chapters which should stimulate the reconstruction of many conventional narratives of the contacts between the whites and Indians.

The book is divided into five parts with appendices and a lengthy bibliography. In the first part the Indians are "placed"; their origins discussed (with a confessed leaning to the diffusionists); there are chapters on Indian drunkenness, and a study of diseases and their effects on depopulating the Indians. In the second part the relations of the conquerors, especially the Spanish, with the natives are detailed. In part three, the trader receives his due. But "The Trader" is an insufficient caption for the wealth of material embodied in this section. The Indian frontier is looked upon as one aspect of the problem of world frontiers, and Professor Macleod links it up very

interestingly with the Celtic frontiers in the British Isles. The story of trade and the acquisition of land is inseparable from narratives of Indian wars, so that these fill a large portion of this section of the volume.

Part IV takes up many of the questions discussed in Part I. In an informing chapter on Indian labor, the author differs with leading authorities, e. g., Lauber, on the comparative efficiency of Indian and negro slave labor; he believes that Indians were not more refractory than negroes and had equal capabilities. This is a significant fact, for if the slave system had been given a fair trial Professor Macleod thinks "there is no reason to believe that slavery would not have civilized and saved the Indian." The Indian's "social inheritance" was useless after the new civilization brought by the Europeans and "required a complete revolution of the Indian," a change that could only come slowly and extending over several generations. In this respect the Spaniards were far superior in their dealings with the natives than were the English. In a volume belonging to "The History of Civilization" series, it would have been appropriate to include many more evidences of the influence of the Indians on the whites than have been presented. For example, the adoption of Indian words, Indian characters in European literature, and their important place in the development of romanticism—all these and more are worth the notice of a socio-historical study.

"The Sweep of Empire" concludes the narrative in Part V, picking up the thread of Part III after the collapse of the Iroquois power. The westward rush of the whites and the speedy submergence of the natives, temporarily halted by several "last stands," finish the tragic tale. For in the main it is a tragedy that has been enacted, and the remaining Indians serve to outline more sharply the tragic characters played by their departed ancestors.

MICHAEL KRAUS.

College of the City of New York.

*Introduction to American Economic History.* By Walter W. Jennings. Thomas Y. Crowell Co., New York, 1928. xii, 546 pp. \$3.00.

In this younger brother to Professor Jennings' *History of Economic Progress in the United States* which appeared in 1926, the author has covered the same ground but from a different approach. In a series of seventeen more or less disconnected chapters, he traces in topical form the place in American history of the products of the soil, domestic animals, fishing and trapping, as well as the more familiar subjects—the tariff, immigration, transportation, et cetera.

It is not an easy task to pack between the covers of a textbook even a survey of so wide a field. In the first fifty pages, under the headings of *Exploration and Settlement* and *Territorial Expansion of the United States*, the author suggests economic aspects of the entire period of American history, primarily, it seems, for the benefit of the junior college student to refresh his memory. The chronological narrative is then abandoned for a topical arrangement in a number of essays. Since we do not live in a world in which economic or any other phases of life are segregated in neatly labelled compartments, it is left to the student to correlate for himself these strands which together form the intricate web of our economic heritage.

In elementary surveys of this kind, authors nowadays are inclined to express in their prefaces the fond hope that their words may reach out into the world and be something more than school assignments. The motive is a worthy one, but the difficulties of writing a book that appeals to the "busy business man" (p. vii) and that is at the same time a textbook are great. The latter should be written dispassionately, and this Professor Jennings seems not always to have done. For example, in speaking of the causes of the lowered birth rate, he says: "Many couples who are able to rear properly several children refuse to do so because such an action would interfere materially with the perverted idea of a good time; hence they whirl on in their giddy round of pleasure and lavish their affections on some good-for-nothing poodle or other pet whose caress is more highly esteemed than that of a child" (p. 57). It

sounds more like the fervid expression of an orator than like a statement of fact or of interpretation written with the disinterested interest of the historian.

As a text in American economic history this book does not seem to be quite as satisfactory as one or two others already in use; but its topical arrangement will make it useful to the student for reviewing the history of our tariff, immigration, et cetera. Several of the standard references are given at the end of each chapter to guide those who wish to pursue the topic further. A hundred charts lessen the burden of statistics, and are significant and well done.

G. ADOLF KOCH.

Columbia University.

*County Government and Administration in North Carolina.* By P. W. Wager. University of North Carolina Press, Chapel Hill, 1928. xii, 447 pp.

The tradition, following Bryce, that the American government is our greatest political failing completely overlooks the ineptitude of our county government. The counties are almost our oldest political institutions, as witness such ancient titles as sheriff (shire-reave) and coroner (crownner). Here is a vivid and significant survey of county government as it exists today in a typical state. In one sense it presents a pathetic picture of inefficiency, confusion, and in some cases of corruption. Regarding highways, no two counties operate under the same law. Forty counties have highway boards independent of the county supervisor. Some of these are appointed by the legislature, some are elected, others are chosen by the towns, in still others they are chosen by the governor, and in some instances the governor appoints on nomination by party committees. In many places the cost of tax collection is excessive, and in others arrears run to fifty or sixty per cent. School equipment and the quality of instruction varies astonishingly from county to county. The character of jails and the treatment of prisoners, particularly in chain gangs, is equally various. The story here presented is descriptive, but the author has not hesitated to criticize existing practices and in many instances to discuss improved methods in use elsewhere. The picture here would describe with little change the situation in most of our states. The circumstantial quality of this volume should make it a far more interesting and instructive text for a college class in local government than the typical textbook.

J. McGOLDRICK.

Columbia University.

## Book Notes

*Southern Albania in European Affairs, 1912-1923* (Stanford University Press, Stanford University, California, 1926, xi, 195 pp.), by Edith Pierpont Stickney, is a thoroughgoing, straightforward study of the question of the disposition of Northern Epirus from 1912 "when it first assumed any great diplomatic importance," up to 1923. Austria, Italy, and Greece were naturally drawn into the net of diplomatic entanglements woven by the problem, from the very day that Albania declared its independence—a little over sixteen years ago. The World War removed Austria from the scene, but made Italy and Greece more bellicose. Then there was the secret Treaty of London of 1915, and much talk about self-determination. The allies, though finally recognizing Albania as independent, left the question of the southern frontier unsettled. In that state Albania was admitted to the League. The Conference of Ambassadors eventually decided that Albania was to have the boundaries of 1913. A few minor sources of friction with Greece remained to be smoothed out by a special Commission of Enquiry. The study is based on the wealth of materials available in the Hoover War Library at Stanford, and was awarded the George Louis Beer prize by the American Historical Association in 1925. A series of eight maps and an eighteen-page bibliography add much to the value of the book.

*The International Government of the Saar* (University of California Press, Berkeley, California), by Frank M. Russell, is a well-documented, impartial account of the developments in the Saar Basin from 1919 to 1926. On the recommendation of the historical rather than the economic advisers, the Peace Conference transferred the coal mines and deposits of the Saar to France. This was by way of compensation for the wilful destruction, by the Germans, of the coal mines in Northern France. The decision was unfortunate in that it created a new "area of friction," and also "proved the entering wedge for other forms of economic control." Furthermore, having economic control, France soon felt the urge for political control as well. To make things worse, it was provided that a plebiscite be held in the Saar in 1935, at which time the people are to decide whether or not they want to go back to Germany. Naturally French interests are tempted to exert pressure and influence calculated to affect the plebiscite in that year. Though the Saar is technically under the control of the League of Nations, the Saar Commission really has been dominated by a majority of pro-French members. Accordingly, German complaints to the League have been fairly numerous. So far as administrative achievement goes, the Commission apparently has "achieved success under difficult circumstances." But a less partial Commission might have done even better. Germany's admission to the League may cause the future activities of the Commission to be more in accord with the spirit as well as the letter of the Treaty.

In *The Idea of Social Justice* (The Macmillan Company, New York, 1927. 595 pp.) Professor C. W. Pipkin has presented us with a vast amount of raw material for the history of England and France in the twentieth century. The sub-title indicates the scope of the work as well as the elements of social justice. It is a study of legislation and administration and the labor movement in England and France between 1900 and 1926. The purpose is "to estimate the strength of certain forces at work... which are helping to create a better social order for the individual." In spite of enviable industry, and perhaps partly because of it (there are nearly 2,000 footnotes and 18 pp. of bibliography) Professor Pipkin has only partially succeeded. Taken in conjunction with L. T. Hobhouse, *The Elements of Social Justice*, a fuller success is obtained, for the latter book is the philosophic mansion. Professor Pipkin plays the humbler rôle of providing bricks and lumber. The two are naturally complementary. If this compendious quality be accepted, however, virtues there are in plenty. The survey of the social movement and legislation and the treatment of labor developments are exhaustive. If there are gaps as in the rather summary treatment of the labors of the Poor Law Commission and its Report (1909), where there was an interesting divergence between the majority and minority reports on the matter of labor colonies, they doubtless resulted from the limitations of space. As solid history it is also profound criticism of certain aspects of modern civilization, far more commendable than the facile panaceas which appear so frequently from omniscient literateurs. Rhodes' scholarships are seldom productive of such meritorious fruits.

C. F. M.

In *The Geographical Basis of European History* (Henry Holt, New York, 1928. viii. 110 pp. \$1.00), Mr. John K. Wright, of the American Geographical Society, has presented us with a fit companion to the already published *Berkshire Studies in European History*. After a sketchy introduction of generalizations, the author consecutively treats the three geographical units which he conceives as making up the basis of European history: the Afro-Arabian arid region, the Alpine-Mediterranean region, and Northern Europe. The latter is honored most in number of pages. The matter dealt with includes topography, races, the industrial and commercial geography, languages, and metropolitan centers. A running line of historical comment accompanies most of the discussion. Teachers of history in both the secondary schools and colleges can

afford to be grateful to Mr. Wright for furnishing this compact, intelligible introduction to European history. Heretofore such knowledge had to be gained piecemeal or oftener not at all. The editors of the series are to be congratulated on sensing the need; the author, on satisfying it. A suggestive bibliography and illustrative maps and charts enhance the value of the work.

A series of brief biographical sketches entitled, *All These* (Harvard University Press, Cambridge, 1927. xii, 314 pp.), by the late Paul Revere Frothingham, pastor of the Arlington Street Unitarian Church of Boston, form interesting reading. Among those portrayed by the author are John Cotton, John Fiske, John Ruskin, Edward Everett Hale, William Everett, George Hodges, and Charles William Eliot. The book also contains a brief memoir of Dr. Frothingham by Judge Robert Grant.

Warren Edwin Brokaw's *Equitable Society and How to Create It* (Vanguard Press, New York, 1927. ix, 365 pp.)—another attempt to explain how the world can be made a happier place—contains a hodgepodge of material, much of which might be better arranged and digested. The author would abolish ignorance and establish a social system based on a universal labor unit of one dollar per hour!

## Books on History and Government published in the United States from Oct. 27, to Nov. 24, 1928

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Bishop, Mildred C., and Robinson, E. K. American history workbook. Pt. 2. Boston: Ginn & Co. 55 pp. 48 cents.

Bolton, Herbert E. History of the Americas; a syllabus with maps. Boston: Ginn & Co. 336 pp. \$2.40.

Breckenridge, William M. *Helldorado*. [Author former deputy sheriff of Tombstone, Arizona.] Boston: Houghton, Mifflin. 275 pp. \$4.00.

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Furlong, Philip J. America. N. Y.: W. H. Sadlier. 643 pp. \$1.60.

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Offutt, Milton. The protection of citizens abroad by the armed forces of the United States. Balto.: Johns Hopkins Press. 178 pp. (2 p. bibl.). \$1.50.

Robinson, William M., Jr. The Confederate privateers. New Haven: Yale Univ. Press. 388 pp. (5 p. bibl.). \$4.00.

Saxon, Lyle. Fabulous New Orleans [a history of New Orleans]. N. Y.: Century. 342 pp. (2 p. bibl.). \$5.00.

Tome, Philip. Pioneer life or Thirty years a hunter. [Author for fifteen years interpreter for Cornplanter and Governor Blacksnake.] Harrisburg, Pa.: Aurand Press. 182 pp. Privately printed. \$7.50.

### ANCIENT HISTORY

Heitland, W. E. Last words on the Roman municipalities. N. Y.: Macmillan. 80 pp. \$1.25.

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